The Nation.

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The Week.

Numerous motives combine to make the admiring gratification over Lieut. Hobson's feat in blocking the channel of Santiago harbor both intense and universal. It was a daring exploit, maturely planned and bravely and brilliantly executed. Say what we will of heroes of peace and of civic courage equalling military, there is something in such a crowded hour of glorious life that sets the pulses leaping in unwonted fashion. The cool measuring of danger, joined with proud contempt of it; the importance of the end aimed at, and the complete success with which it was attained; the calm ignoring of the terrible risks run, and the entire self-effacement of the young officer and his heroic crew make Lieut. Hobson's deed one of the most notable in naval annals—and high and reckless daring is the characteristic note of naval annals. The fact that Hobson is a Southerner is also one to cause especial satisfaction both North and South. As a result of the civil war, almost all the higher officers of the navy are now from the North; and it was a peculiarly happy thing that this strong appeal to a united national sentiment should have been made by a man from the South. The lofty personal bravery of the men who ran the non-combatant *Merrimac* into the throat of the channel and sank her there, is clearly what woke the admiration of the Spanish Admiral. He did the handsome thing in at once sending out word that our heroes were uninjured, and that he would be glad to restore such brave men to their fleet by exchange.

The fine work at Santiago means that the policy of slow and sure has been adopted. Not a ship or a life will be risked unnecessarily. Cervera will be penned in Santiago until the time comes to capture or destroy his squadron with the least possible hazard to our ships and men. Extensive campaigning in any other part of Cuba is scarcely to be looked for. Indeed, it may not be needed at all, if Santiago is taken and Porto Rico swooped upon as is now said to be planned. One thing is certain: we can endure a deliberate campaign better than Spain. We can better afford to see the cost of the war mount up by delay than to make a needless sacrifice of life to hasten matters; whereas it is precisely the financial pinch of the war, with a hopeless outcome all the while inevitable, that is breaking down even the high spirit of Spain, and that must soon, one hopes, lead to proposals for peace.

The news received from Spain is conflicting. On the one hand, we are told that the financial embarrassments of the Government are so great that the war must come to an end soon from lack of money. On the other hand, Premier Sagasta is quoted as saying that the war will be prosecuted with vigor, and that Spain will never yield an inch of her territory. Señor Sagasta is better authority than the newspaper reporters. Spain's financial resources are slender, but they are not so near exhaustion as the cable reports would imply. The run on the Bank of Spain may carry off the silver of that institution without doing it much harm. It will then refuse to redeem its notes. In other words, it will be bankrupt with a large stock of gold in its vaults, and this gold the Government will in one way or another find means to lay its hands on. The country can carry on the war with paper money and fractional currency for a year or two, and in the meantime some help may be secured on hard terms from the money-lenders of Paris. The internal resources of the country may even yield another loan. A "bond issue" of $200,000,000 is now advertised, payable probably in silver or notes of the Bank of Spain. Such a loan if taken would not yield more than $100,000,000, gold value. It would not last more than a year at the present rate, but would still leave a margin of fighting power by the issue of irredeemable currency. The Confederate States carried on war a good while in this way. Therefore it would be quite unsafe to assume that Spain will stop fighting very soon merely for want of money.

The Senate has made numerous minor amendments of the revenue bill as it came from the House of Representatives, as well as some of a vital nature. The proposed tax on the gross receipts of corporations finally dwindled down to a "special excise tax" of one-fourth of 1 per cent. on the gross annual receipts of refiners of sugar and petroleum in excess of $250,000. This was proposed, not as a revenue measure, but as a blow at the Standard Oil and Sugar Companies. It is doubtful if it will pass the House of Representatives, doubtful if it will be sustained by the courts, and doubtful if it will be paid by the refining companies rather than by the people who buy their products. The provisions in regard to stamp taxes were modified and extended, but the changes are in most cases immaterial, and in general in accordance with fiscal principles. Every one now who draws a check, or takes a receipt, or buys a bond or a share of stock, or gives a mortgage, or ships a parcel of goods, or takes out a policy of insurance, or hires a house, or gives a proxy or a power of attorney, or buys a ticket for Europe, or sends a message by telegraph or telephone, or takes a seat or berth in a Pullman car, or buys anything at a drug-store, or anything except food that is sold under a patent right or trade-mark, will know that he is contributing to the expense of the war. Bankers and brokers have to pay special taxes; bankers being taxed on their capital and surplus, and brokers by license-fees. Savings banks, however, are exempted. The tax on legacies and distributive shares of personal property is a very severe one, in view of the extent to which many of the States have already adopted such taxation. It is a graduated tax, and in the case of estates of a million dollars may amount to 15 per cent. On the whole, the measure, even if modified, is calculated to bring the existence of taxation to the knowledge of every household, and this is not a bad idea.

The interests of the newspapers were carefully "conserved" by the Senate in adjusting taxation. No stamp tax is to be paid on packages of newspapers weighing less than one hundred pounds, when sent by express, although this tax is imposed on all other packages. This amendment was advocated by Senator Allen of Nebraska, on the ground that there should be no restraints on the diffusion of intelligence, anything printed being properly so classified, according to his view. Senator Wolcott, however, opposed the amendment in some rather striking remarks. He pointed out that the serial publications of the United States pay 3 per cent. of the revenue and occasion 65 per cent. of the expense of the mail service; that the "country press," in behalf of which Senator Allen pleaded, make no use of the express service at all, while the great city papers, aided by the fast mail trains put on for their accommodation, send 6,000,000 packages by express annually. The tax on this business would be but $60,000 a year, and Senator Wolcott thought a tax on circulation also would be a very equitable tax. He added the following remarks, which, however, had no effect on the vote of the Senate:

"If the condition were imposed that the daily statements of circulation should be accepted as complete evidence of the number of copies sold, such a tax would produce at least $100,000,000 a year. The newspapers had been largely instrumental in leading to the war, and they ought not to object to bearing their share of the burden. There were, he said, newspapers and newspapers. The time had been when the newspapers were educators in the household, but they had gradually become sensational and cared nothing for the truth. They resorted to all sorts of slanders and misrepresentations, and had much to do with bringing about the existing state of affairs. He thought it beneath contempt for Congress to say that all the newspapers

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of the United States could not pay the $60,000 a year which would be their share of the stamp tax on packages."

Senator Hoar's address at the Bryn Mawr commencement on Thursday contained truth that was wholesome for the occasion, and would have been wholesome if uttered in the Senate chamber. The Senator, to be sure, averred that the great questions of our future, and of the fate of the republic, were to be settled "at mothers' knees," and so perhaps justified himself in saying boldly to the fair girl graduates what he has not said in the Senate. There is, in truth, something plausible in the view that there is more hope in appealing to an unborn Senate than to the one in actual life. But it would at least have been a better way of letting the country know what is the sentiment of conservative and educated Massachusetts, if the things said at Bryn Mawr had been spoken at Washington. Mr. Hoar's courage, as a strict party man, might not have been equal to declaring in the Senate, as he did at the college, that political parties and tariffs and banks, and even presidents as opposed to monarchs, are of no account compared with sentiments of honor and justice in the individual citizen and in the counsels and action of the republic; but truth like that deserves a wider audience. The Senator asked, with evident reference to current events, if the controlling motives and passions of our national conduct were to be avarice, glory, and power, and if through them we were to go the way of the great empires of the past. Our flag, he said, was not the symbol of dominion or of empire, but of freedom, self-government, law, equality, and justice. This is Mr. Hoar's scarcely veiled protest against the grasping policy. As we say, it would have been an excellent one to deliver in the Senate, only there the Senator would have had to make a personal confession that he himself had contributed not a little to the forcing upon the country of the policy at which he now stands aghast.

Two men were indicted by the grand jury in the Federal Court for the District of Alaska in December, 1896, for selling liquors without having first complied with the law regulating their sale. The defendants moved to quash the indictment upon various grounds, and the case was carried to the Court of Appeals. Several of these points were purely technical, and of no interest except to members of the legal profession. But one of them went to the very heart of the question of Territorial government by Congress, and is of the first importance. It was contended that the law upon which the prosecution was based was unconstitutional, because the Government of the United States can exercise only those specific powers conferred upon it by the Constitution; that the Constitution guarantees to the citizen the right to own, hold, and acquire property, and makes no distinction as to the character of the property; that intoxicating liquors are property, and are subject to exchange, barter, and traffic, like any other commodity in which a right of property exists; that inasmuch as the power to regulate commerce was committed to Congress to relieve it from all restrictions, Congress cannot itself impose restrictions upon commerce by prohibiting the sale of a particular commodity; and that, if Congress has the power to regulate the sale of intoxicating liquors within the Territories as a police regulation, it can only enact laws applicable to all the Territories alike.

Judge Morrow, declaring the decision of the court upon these claims, said:

"The answer to these and the other like objections urged in the brief of counsel for defendant is found in the now well-established doctrine that the Territories of the United States are entirely subject to the legislative authority of Congress. They are not organized under the Constitution, nor subject to its complex distribution of the powers of government as the organic law, but are the creation, exclusively, of the legislative department, and subject to its supervision and control. The United States having rightfully acquired the Territories, and being the only government which can impose laws upon them, have the entire dominion and sovereignty, national and municipal, Federal and State. Under this full and comprehensive authority, Congress has unquestionably the power to exclude intoxicating liquors from any or all of its Territories, or limit their sale under such regulations as it may prescribe. It may legislate in accordance with the special needs of each locality, and vary its regulations to meet the circumstances of the people. Whether the subject elsewhere would be a matter of local police regulations or within the State control under some other power, it is immaterial to consider; in a Territory, all the functions of government are within the legislative jurisdiction of Congress, and may be exercised through a local government or directly by such legislation as we have now under consideration."

In other words, if the United States were to acquire Porto Rico and the Philippines, for example, it could govern either absolutely according to its own will. It might establish one form of government for Porto Rico and another totally different for the Philippines; it could let some people or all people vote in Porto Rico, and none in the Philippines; it could establish a high-license system in Porto Rico, and pass a prohibitory law for the Philippines; in short, it would possess all the functions of government for both, and could exercise those functions in the case of either as it chose.

The Republicans of Oregon have been a good deal demoralized on the financial question in the past, through the influence of ex-Senator Mitchell, who thought he could secure another term by favoring the free-coinage heresy; but they have abandoned the policy of compromise this year, and in their platform came out "flatfooted" in favor of the gold standard and in unqualified opposition to the free coinage of silver, "and to all other schemes looking to the debasement of the currency and the repudiation of debts," while they "condemn the continued agitation for free silver as calculated to jeopardize the prosperity of the country and to shake the confidence of the people in the maintenance of a wise financial policy." The election, which took place on Monday, appears to have resulted, deservedly, in a decisive Republican victory on both State and congressional tickets. It was largely the 1896 contest over again, the Republicans and Gold Democrats facing a motley array of opponents known as the "People's-Democratic-Silver-Republican ticket." This happy result comes opportunely to stiffen the House Republicans in their opposition to the "seigniorage" folly, and to the policy of throwing even that sop to the silverites. And Mr. Bryan, when he learns that the returns from the country districts show large losses from the vote polled for him two years ago, can devote himself even more assiduously to the study of tactics and the pursuit of military glory.

The contest which Quay makes in Pennsylvania this year will engage the attention of the whole country, for it involves not simply the personal fortunes of the boss or the fate of his party in the November election, but also the question whether Pennsylvania is to have a republican form of government. Quay controlled the last Legislature absolutely, but the Governor was not subservient to him, and blocked various machine schemes, either by the use of the veto power after the bills were passed, or by preventing their passage through the threat of such action. Quay has now forced the nomination for Governor of a man whom he owns. If he can secure the election of such an executive and at the same time of a Legislature which he controls, the machine will absolutely govern the State. The first skirmish for this legislative control is not calculated to encourage the opponents of the boss. Chester County elected three anti-Quay men to the last Legislature, and the forces which Mr. Wanamaker has represented sought to renominate them upon their merits in this particular. The primaries were held on Saturday, and Mr. Wanamaker visited the county on Friday to deliver a speech and rally the opposition to Quay. But the boss easily carried the day, and the county convention has since put up three men who will be his mere tools, in place of the late independent legislators.

At the International Congress of Actuaries recently held in London a paper was read which unfortunately possesses a deeper interest for American readers than it would have under ordinary circumstances. The communication relat-

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ed to the mortality in the British army and navy during former and recent years, and disclosed a very remarkable improvement in the rate. During the decade preceding 1865, the average death-rate per 1,000 men in the navy was from disease 11.7, from violence 4.2, making a total of 15.9. But for the ten years preceding 1895 the corresponding rates were from disease 4.4, from violence 2.6, a total of 7.0. In 1895 the actual death-rate per 1,000 in the navy was only 1.8 in excess of the rate to be expected according to Dr. Sprague's select life tables. In the army the death-rate between 1866 and 1875 was at home 10.6 and abroad 16.9, or for the whole army 13.8. In the period 1886-1895 the corresponding rates were reduced to 5.5 for the troops in the United Kingdom and 13.3 abroad, or for the total army 9.4. In 1895 the excess in the army over the average for select lives was but 4.7. If progress should continue after this fashion, men will enter military service to prolong their lives, and the apprehensions aroused in Mark Twain's mind at the appalling numbers of people who die in their beds will become general.

The addresses delivered in Parliament the day after Mr. Gladstone's death were most of them of high merit, and together constituted a remarkable tribute to the dead statesman. His long-time rival, Lord Salisbury, in his brief but generous remarks, singled out Gladstone's invariably "high moral ideal" as the one thing, more effective even than his intellectual gifts, which explained his astonishing power of attaching men to him, and which made of him "a great example—of which history hardly furnishes a parallel, of a great Christian man." The Duke of Devonshire, speaking for the Liberal Unionists who broke away from Mr. Gladstone in 1886, testified that he and his colleagues never doubted that the leader whom they could no longer follow had been "actuated by no other consideration than that of public duty, and by his conception of that which was in the highest interests of his country." Lord Rosebery's speech excelled all the others in taste and force and elevated pathos, and his characterization of Mr. Gladstone's mental and moral power was both searching and just. Mr. Balfour, too, in the Commons, spoke with unwonted enthusiasm about Mr. Gladstone's supreme and easy mastery of that House. Not from Parliamentary records, he said, would it ever be possible to reconstruct any living likeness of what Mr. Gladstone was as Leader of the House, or of the Opposition: "Posterity must take it upon our testimony what he was to those, friends or foes, whose fortune it was to be able to hear him."

The award of Sir Nicholas John Hannen, Chief Justice of her Britannic Majesty's Supreme Court of China and Japan, in the Cheek case is another triumph for arbitration, for not only has it been received with good grace by Siam, the losing party, but it furnishes an authoritative settlement of an important question of international law. Dr. Marion A. Cheek, a citizen of this country, made a contract in 1890 with the Government of Siam under which they advanced him a large sum of money to aid him in carrying on the teak trade, and he was to raft the logs from the forests of northern Siam to Bangkok, where they were to be sold and the profits divided between him and the Siamese Government. Cheek was to pay interest on the loan, which was secured by a mortgage on his property, consisting for the most part of 150 elephants. After the first year he could not, owing to droughts, get sufficient teak to Bangkok to meet his engagement, and in 1892 the Siamese Government, having determined that he had violated its conditions, seized his logs and placed his affairs in the hands of a receiver appointed by themselves. Later they issued an administrative order preventing him from following his business in northern Siam, leaving him with many useless elephants on his hands.

By our treaty of 1856 with that government the interests of all American citizens in Siam are placed under the regulation and control of the Consul-General of the United States, and all the disputes arising between them and Siamese subjects must be heard and determined by him in conjunction with certain Siamese officers. Not only was Cheek's case not carried by Siam before our consular court, but all the proceedings were taken administratively and in spite of the protests of our consular representative. From 1891 to 1897 there was a constant dispute between the two governments relative to this matter, but in July of the latter year, Mr. Barrett, our efficient Minister and Consul-General at Bangkok, who had been especially instructed by Mr. Cleveland to secure its settlement, signed a protocol with Prince Devawongse, submitting the whole case to the eminent English jurist already mentioned. In less than two months the arbitrator examined all the statements, pleadings, proofs, cases, and counter cases, and pronounced a judgment finally disposing of the troublesome matter, at the same time removing much of the uncertainty as to the extent of extra-territorial jurisdiction, a question in which all European governments as well as our own are interested. The decision in effect is that the seizure of Cheek's property was a violation of the treaty between the United States and Siam; that Cheek had not made any default in the performance of the conditions of his contract when properly construed; and that the order suspending his business, issued by Siam on the ground that he had not complied with such conditions, was, therefore, unjustifiable. Under this decision, Siam must pay $200,000 and release Cheek's elephants from all liens and claims.

Attention is called by the *Journal of Commerce* to the introduction by the President of the Board of Trade of Great Britain of a parliamentary measure intended to reduce the charges now levied on shipping for the support of harbors and lighthouses. These charges amount to a considerable burden on commerce, and a modification of the tax has long been urged. It has produced, owing to the vast increase of shipping, considerably more than it now costs to maintain the lighthouses, and is in so far indefensible under a free-trade policy. In fact, the tax is really a survival from the days when highways were supported by tolls. The principle, which is perfectly reasonable, theoretically, is that those who use the highway, or are guided by the lighthouse, shall pay for maintaining these conveniences. But in practice, as soon as traffic expands, it is found to be advantageous to abandon the attempt to assess a specific sum on every vehicle, and to make the cost of facilitating travel a common charge. In this respect the policy of the United States may be regarded as more advanced than that of England.

The final results of the French elections look less favorable for the ministry. The loss of a seat by the Colonial Minister, and the defeat of several other candidates who were expected to take office under M. Méline, were severe blows to the Premier, and his majority turns out but slight and precarious. According to the latest figures, the ministerialist members of the Chamber will number 291, with ten or a dozen more doubtfully to be counted upon. The Conservatives have elected 49, the Radicals 104, the Socialist-Radicals 107, and the Anti-Semites 20. Here, then, is a cabinet majority of only 10 to 20 in an Assembly containing a great many turbulent elements. This is, in the French Chamber, distinctly not a working majority. Unless M. Méline can make some speedy adjustments with the opposing factions, the prospect is that enough of his own supporters will soon be detached to leave him in a minority. At present he is weaker than before May 1. All his subservience to the military spirit, as it showed itself willing to trample upon justice in the Dreyfus and Zola cases, all M. Hanotaux's appeals to Salisbury not to press him too hard in the West Africa dispute until after the elections, have profited little. There is no need of possible foreign complications to make the political outlook appear stormy.

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THE REVENUE BILL.

The revenue bill, as passed by the Senate on Saturday, differs in many particulars from the same bill as passed by the House, but chiefly in the two following: (1) "coining the seigniorage"; (2) putting an import duty of 10 cents per pound on tea. Incidentally it was proved that a majority of the Senate could not be obtained for a new issue of greenbacks. On this point the majority of the finance committee was overruled by the Senate; seven Democrats and one Populist voting with the Republicans. The same vote carried the bond clause, which the finance committee had reported adversely.

Coining the seigniorage—a subtle and mysterious operation akin to witchcraft—has been explained many times, but is probably not understood by one in ten thousand of the American people, nor ever will be. We will try once more to show what the advocates of the process mean by it. Seigniorage is the charge made by a sovereign or government for coining the precious metals for private individuals. Our Government makes no charge for coining gold. It receives gold bullion from the owners and returns them exactly the amount of coin produced from it, charging them only the cost of the copper used as alloy. The Government in this case furnishes the capital and labor, and does the work for nothing. There is no reason why it should not charge at least the cost of coining. If it made a charge, whether more or less, that charge would be seigniorage. Most governments do make a charge for coining for private individuals, and our Government did so until 1873, when the present coinage law was passed. Then, at the instance of the Senators from the Pacific Coast, the seigniorage on gold was abolished.

The word seigniorage is applied also to any gain which a government makes in the act of coining. Thus, in the manufacture and sale of subsidiary coins of silver, copper, and nickel the Government buys the metal, makes the coins, and sells them to the public at their face value, but the cost of the metal is less than one-half of their face value. The difference is seigniorage. Why, then, should not the Government make an unlimited amount of these coins (halves, quarters, dimes, etc.), and pay all its expenses with the profits arising from seigniorage? Because one of the necessary conditions is that the Government after selling them at par shall redeem them at par on demand. The people require only a limited number of halves, quarters, dimes, etc., for the transaction of business. Persons who take in more small change than they can pay out must be enabled to convert it into money of more convenient form. The Government provides these facilities by redeeming all subsidiary coins in gold or its equivalent at the sub-treasuries. Hence the possible gain from the seigniorage is limited to the amount of small change that the people require for purposes of retail trade.

The same principles apply to the Government's coinage of silver dollars. The Bland-Allison act of 1878 required the Treasury to purchase not less than two million nor more than four million dollars' worth of silver bullion per month, to coin the same into silver dollars, and to deal with them as with other money belonging to the United States. If the Government could buy with one dollar enough silver bullion to make two silver dollars, and then use each of these dollars at par in paying the salaries of its employees and its other obligations, there was a gain or seigniorage of one dollar on the transaction, and this gain might be repeated as often and as long as the dollars would pass readily into the circulation.

The so-called Sherman act of 1890 substituted another mode of dealing with silver. The amount of bullion to be purchased was increased to 4,500,000 ounces per month. It was to be bought at its market value, and, instead of coining it, legal-tender Treasury notes were to be issued to the sellers of the bullion, which notes the Government must redeem on demand in coin, and practically in gold coin, because the law declared that it was the policy of the Government to keep gold money and silver money at par with each other. If coining had continued as under the Bland act, there would have been an apparent gain or seigniorage of fifty cents on each dollar as long as the public would keep the silver dollars (or certificates representing them), and not present them for redemption. In a case where there is no coining there is no seigniorage, since seigniorage is a result of coinage.

When the Sherman act of 1890 was passed and went into operation, the silver men said that seigniorage ought to result from the issuing of Treasury notes just as from the issue of silver dollars, and in this they were right in the sense that the seigniorage was an imaginary quantity in either case. A greenback dollar is all seigniorage, a silver dollar is half seigniorage, but the gain is only a matter of bookkeeping in either case, provided the Government redeems both kinds of dollars in gold. There is nothing gained, in coining the silver in the Treasury, in the way of seigniorage or otherwise that could not be better reached by issuing greenbacks outright. But there is a disadvantage in "coining the seigniorage" in the fact that it adds another kind of currency to the seven kinds now existing. It is objectionable for the further reason that it increases the demand liabilities of the Government by $42,000,000 at a time when every dictate of prudence requires that they should be reduced and put in the course of extinction. It is to be hoped, therefore, that the House will resolutely cast out this provision for coining the seigniorage, and put upon the Senate the responsibility of defeating the bill if it insists upon such folly.

The imposition of a duty on tea embodied in the bill comes as a great surprise, seeing that it was proposed by a Populist from South Carolina, and was supported by nearly the entire Democratic vote of the Senate. A tax on tea is a tax on labor—not more so in fact than a duty on wool or on blankets, but equally so in fact and more so in appearance. Whether the working classes will understand what this tax means is doubtful, but we confess our astonishment that the Democrats should run the risk of their not understanding it and resenting it. A good deal may be said in favor of this tax in an emergency like the present, but even more may be said in favor of a tax on coffee, because a larger revenue is derivable from the latter. We think it most probable that the House will concur in the tax on tea, seeing that the Democrats are estopped by their own act from making it a political issue.

RAILROAD-LABOR ARBITRATION.

The public interest in the war has been so overpowering as to cause the passage of an act of Congress intended to prevent strikes on railroads, to take place without comment. The measure, however, contains features of considerable importance; and as, after extended debate, it was adopted by the Senate with only three, and by the House with only five dissenting votes, it is presumptively satisfactory to all interests. One of the strongest points in its favor is the fact that Mr. Allen, the Populist Senator from Nebraska, denounced it. He declared that he was the true friend of the laboring people, and that this bill was a trap intended to commit them to involuntary servitude. As Senator Allen was unable to substantiate this assertion by any specific proofs, and as the chief organizations of railway men had been consulted in framing the bill and had urged its passage, the danger of involuntary servitude need not be regarded as serious.

The arbitration provided in the bill is of course voluntary, compulsory arbitration involving what philosophers call a *contradictio in adjecto*. It applies to all common carriers engaged in interstate commerce except street railroads, and provides that when any controversies concerning wages, hours of labor, or conditions of employment arise between carriers and their employees, either party may call on the chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission and the Commissioner of Labor to mediate. If mediation fails to bring about an agreement, one arbitrator is to be named by the carrier, one by the labor organi-

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zations interested (or if no such organizations exist, by a majority of the laborers involved), the two arbitrators to select a third. Should they fail to agree on the third member in five days, the commissioners named above shall appoint him. Pending the arbitration the *status quo* shall be maintained, the parties submitting their respective cases in writing and stipulating to that effect, as well as that the award made shall be filed with the record of the proceedings in the proper Circuit Court of the United States, and shall be final and conclusive on both parties unless set aside for error of law apparent on the record. A third stipulation is of so much importance that we give it verbatim:

"(3.) That the respective parties to the award will each faithfully execute the same, and that the same may be specifically enforced in equity so far as the powers of a court of equity permit. Provided, That no injunction or other legal process shall be issued which shall compel the performance by any laborer against his will of a contract for personal labor or service."

This proviso is intended to prevent the issuance of injunctions of the comprehensive character which excited so much angry feeling at the time of the great Chicago strike, and while it is perhaps unnecessary in view of all the decisions, it was regarded as essential by the labor unions. A fourth stipulation is to the effect that employees dissatisfied with the award shall not on that account quit work for three months after the award is made without giving thirty days' notice, and that like notice shall be given by employers before dismissing any employee. The award shall continue in force for one year after it goes into operation. The bill further provides for appeals, and that the award when confirmed shall have the effect of a judgment of the court.

The act also provides that during the pendency of the arbitration proceedings it shall not be lawful for the employer to discharge the employees except for inefficiency, violation of law, or neglect of duty; saving, however, the right of the employer to reduce the number of employees whenever in his judgment business necessities demand it. Nor shall it be lawful "for the organization representing such employees to order, nor for the employees to unite in, aid, or abet strikes against such employer." Any violation of this section shall subject the offending party to liability to damages. This penalty, of course, amounts to nothing against individual laborers, but as Congress has already provided for the incorporation of labor unions, it may prove sufficiently efficacious. The present act requires such incorporations to exclude members who participate in or instigate "force or violence against persons or property during strikes, lockouts, or boycotts, or by seeking to prevent others from working through violence, threats, or intimidation." These corporations are given the right to sue and be sued in any of the Federal courts. Among minor provisions is one that receivers of railroads shall not reduce wages without letting employees be heard in court; another, that no workman shall be required to agree, as a condition of employment, not to belong to a labor union; others, that there shall be no "blacklisting" or similar discrimination, no contract releasing employers from liability for causing personal injury, nor any requirement of contributions to charitable or benevolent funds.

Not a few of the members of Congress who discussed this measure expressed doubts as to its accomplishing great results. But on the whole the law is a good one. The constitution of the Board of Arbitration is satisfactory, and the stipulations are reasonable. Of course, neither the railroad managers nor the labor leaders may choose to make use of this machinery; but the pressure of public opinion upon them will be strong, and the advantages from the preservation of order and the continuance of operations will be an inducement to both parties to relinquish their legal freedom of action. While the railroads may not find that the stipulations of their employees are enforceable, yet if the employees enter into these stipulations they will not find it prudent to disregard them. We trust that it may be long before any occasion arises for testing this measure, but if it does arise we shall be disappointed if it proves altogether a failure.

THE PENNSYLVANIA CAMPAIGN.

The Republican State convention in Pennsylvania on Thursday resulted as had been expected. Quay controlled everything from first to last. So absolute was his power that he did not need to lead his forces in person, but started back to Washington before the convention was called to order, knowing that the machinery had been wound up to turn out his ticket and platform.

Two or three months ago there were abundant signs of a revolt in the party against Quay which might dethrone him. The indications were that under normal national conditions the opposition to the machine would wax so strong before the first week of June that Quay either could not secure a majority in the convention for his favorite, or, if he could force the nomination, would not dare to do so for fear of a revolt at the polls. The war with Spain has changed all this. Quay quickly saw that nothing could so help him to a majority in the convention as the fact that his personal choice for the governorship was a man who had served creditably as a young soldier in the Union army a generation ago, and could therefore be held up as peculiarly fitted to become a "war Governor," while his chief assailant was a merchant who had no military record whatever. It was only necessary to put the head of the Grand Army on the slate for Lieutenant-Governor, and another veteran for Secretary of Internal Affairs, to make an "old soldier" ticket which was irresistible.

The war was equally helpful to the boss in the matter of a platform for the campaign. Under normal conditions it would have been impossible to avoid the issue of bad government in State affairs, and it would have been perilous to handle it. But, under the existing conditions, the war with Spain could be pushed to the front as the great issue of the day, and the first pledge of the platform is one of "earnest support to the President of the United States in whatever measures he may deem necessary for a vigorous prosecution of the war to a successful conclusion." Of course, the boss can now maintain that the only way for Pennsylvania Republicans to redeem this pledge is to elect as war Governor the old soldier whom he has named to head the ticket. The argument which will be heard on every stump was thus laid down in one of the nominating speeches, which "fairly took the delegates off their feet with their shouting and cheering in approval of the speaker's sentiments":

"The result of the coming election will be construed, truly and properly, either as approving or condemning the national Administration on the question of our war. Dare we rebuke the President of our own choosing? Dare we give to Spain and her sympathizers encouragement by even an apparent blow at our national Administration? No, we must stand by our Republican President with an emphatic Republican victory in the Keystone State in November next. Just as our fleet did in the harbor of Manila, passing over the mines and torpedoes of the enemy, let us dare to be courageous. Let us be united and fight to win. Let us on to the battle, assailing the main body of the enemy on the one side and his masked batteries on the other. Then we shall whip the free-silver party and all its hypocritical allies, just as brave Dewey thrashed the Spaniards in far-off Manila."

Already the boss sees his "dodge" working as he expected. The Philadelphia *Press*, which was edited by Charles Emory Smith until he entered the cabinet a few weeks ago, has earnestly supported Mr. Wanamaker in his fight against the machine, and has warned the boss that his programme was intolerable. But all that it had to say the morning after the convention was that the nomination of Quay's man for Governor is "not a victory to be proud of," because it "unnecessarily and wantonly handicaps the Republican party in the coming election"; while it hastens to add that "the rest of the ticket is unexceptionable, and the platform is strong and wise." It will not be long before the *Press* will join the chorus led by the Philadelphia *Inquirer*, Quay's personal organ, and be talking in this vein:

"Now that the party has spoken, all loyal Republicans will endorse its action. In this year, when we are making a foreign war in behalf of humanity, when thousands of

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young Pennsylvanians are doing just as Col. Stone did nearly forty years ago, there will be no desire to let personal preferences before the convention enter into party discord now that the candidate has been named. We are pleased to note that this sentiment is quite general already, and believe it will be unanimous before the campaign ends."

There is speculation as to Mr. Wanamaker's attitude during the campaign. He has always boasted that he never scratched the regular ticket, and it is not to be expected that he will begin doing so "in this crisis in the nation's history." It is hardly conceivable that he can think of running as an independent candidate, because he must know that the real Independents would never vote for a man who supported the boss until the boss refused him the nomination for Governor. The men who care enough for good government to fight for it will vote for the Rev. Dr. Swallow. The vigorous canvass which he will make ought to secure enough support to render success impossible for the Quay ticket, even with the hesitating opponents of Quay in his own party shamefacedly falling in behind the boss, and salving their consciences with the theory that they are thereby supporting the national Administration in time of war.

HOLDING THE PHILIPPINES.

Mr. Chauncey Depew, in an interview in London, has expressed the opinion that the Philippine Islands would be an undesirable possession for the United States, that they would be hard to govern as a colony, and harder still to digest as an integral part of the American Union. That they are likely to be hard to hold as a colony is evidently the opinion of the authorities at Washington. It was first proposed to send 5,000 troops there. Then the number was increased to 15,000, and now the report comes that 35,000 will be required. Probably in making these rapidly rising estimates of the force required to hold the islands, allowance is made for the effects of the torrid heat of the Philippines upon men unacclimated and unused to camp life even in their own country. Experience, however, will soon make a test of the hygienic conditions of the Philippines. We hope for the best, but we sadly fear that the climate will prove a more deadly enemy than the bullets of the Spaniards.

Mr. Depew's warning is addressed to material considerations only. He aims to show that the holding of the Philippines would cost more than it would come to, and would get us into trouble in various ways. This is our opinion also, but we do not consider those reasons the strongest ones against the policy in question. Far more weighty is the objection that we began this war with a moral purpose only—that of delivering a neighboring people from oppression. This reason we put forth in a proclamation to the world coupled with a solemn promise that we would not annex the territory about which the dispute arose. This reason for beginning the war was scouted by Spain and disbelieved by every civilized nation in the world except England. The people of the latter country with unanimity believed that the idea of aggrandizement had no place among our motives; and, in fact, it had none. It is useless to deny that public opinion in Great Britain was divided on the question whether war was justifiable under all the circumstances of the case, but no Englishman has yet said publicly that he believed we went to war for purposes of gain in territory or money. Continental opinion, on the other hand, held in the beginning that that was our main, if not our sole, motive, and that helping the Cubans to gain liberty was a hypocritical pretence. This belief has gained ground among the Continental nations, and although English opinion has not changed as to our original purpose, it is now veering to the belief that our intentions are changing, and it apparently approves of the change.

The reason why Englishmen look favorably upon our holding the Philippines is that Great Britain needs an ally in Asiatic waters, and she thinks that we should prove to be one. The policy of Russia and Germany in making acquisitions on the Chinese coast is apparently to secure for themselves exclusive trading privileges in certain large tracts of country hitherto open to our own as well as to British trade. This project naturally meets opposition here, but only of a diplomatic nature. If we should hold the Philippine Islands as a permanent possession, we should be liable to constant friction with any Powers which have acquired lodgment there, especially if their views regarding trade were not in harmony with ours. Our mere presence there would strengthen the arm of England because our interests would run in the same direction as hers. This fact sufficiently explains why England would look favorably on our holding the Philippines. It would be much more for her interest to have us retain them than to acquire them herself. Indeed, there is no reason to suppose that she would accept them if they were offered to her. The warning uttered by Lord Salisbury the other day, when he reminded his hearers that every new acquisition brought new responsibilities, has an obvious bearing on the Philippines, and on the suggestion that has been made that we turn them over to Great Britain at the end of the war, or exchange them for some of England's possessions in the West Indies.

The question of property and territorial aggrandizement, whatever may be said pro and con, is not the main consideration. The main question is whether we shall justify all our enemies by going back on our solemn promise not to make this war a war of gain. "But that applied only to Cuba," say some of the annexationists. The words applied only to Cuba because Cuba alone was in our minds at the time. The intendment of the words included everything in the way of pelf. Our foreign critics would and actually do sneer at the quibble which assumes that we can clear our consciences by leaving Cuba alone, but by taking everything else of Spain's that we can lay our hands on. The force of the criticism is felt, undoubtedly; for our annexationists now say that Spain's rule in the Philippines is as bad as her rule in Cuba, and that we owe it to the principles of free government to deliver the natives of that country from the tyranny under which they groan. How this is to be done, no man can conceive, since the thought of admitting the Philippine natives to the Union as a self-governing community, with representation in our Congress, forms no part of the plan, and does not enter the mind of a single human being. It would be rejected unanimously if it could be brought to a vote of the American people.

TENNYSON AND HORACE.

HAVERFORD COLLEGE, May 24, 1898.

There are two passages in the new Memoir of Alfred, Lord Tennyson, which a teacher of Latin may be allowed to quote side by side. On the sixteenth page of the first volume we are told that from the time the youthful poet left Louth School, in 1820, till the time he matriculated at Cambridge, in 1828, his education was directed solely by his father. During this period he became an accurate classical scholar, the author most "thoroughly drummed" into him being Horace, whom he disliked in proportion. To quote his own words, "It was not till many years after boyhood that I could like Horace. Byron expressed what I felt: 'Then farewell Horace whom I hated so.' Indeed, I was so overdosed with Horace that I hardly do him justice even now that I am old." The other passage, i., 370, refers to a later period in the poet's life, when he had become, in his turn, the teacher of his own son. Here Hallam Tennyson, the author of the Memoir, remarks, "The first Latin I learnt from him (*sc.*, my father) was Horace's 'O *fons* Bandusiae.'"

It is tempting to suppose that the late Laureate was indebted for some portion of his marvellous technical excellence to his early familiarity with the careful art of Horace. Indeed, he was once reported to have said that Horace and Keats were his two masters. But, a short time before his death, he stated that this report must have been due to a misunderstanding, adding that he did not care for Horace at all until after he was thirty, and that after the 'Poems by Two Brothers' he did not think he had taken any one for master (Memoir, ii., 386).

In view of this statement it may be interesting to collect some of the reminiscences of Horace which are scattered here and there throughout the pages of Tennyson, and to add to them a few passages of the English poet which readily suggest Ho-

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ratian parallels. We begin with a few specific allusions or quotations:

The closing line of the first Ode is quoted in Tennyson's "Epilogue,"

"For dare we dally with the sphere
As he did half in jest,
Old Horace? 'I will strike,' said he,
'The stars with head sublime' ";

and the opening lines of the triumphant "Exegi monumentum" are employed as the motto of the poem "Parnassus." The two lines in "Becket," Act I., Sc. 1,

"The included Danaë has escaped again
Her tower and her Acrisius,"

allude to Od. iii., 16, 1-5, as the line in Act V. Sc. 2, of the same play,

"And one an *uxor pauperis Ibyci*,"

comes from Od. iii., 15, 1. The allusion in "Poets and their Bibliographies,"

"And you, old popular Horace, you the wise
Adviser of the nine-years-ponder'd lay,"

is to the familiar "nonumque prematur in annum" of Ars Poetica, 388. And surely some of the "quoted odes and jewels five-words-long" of that wonderful university lecture in "The Princess" were none other than the "carmina culta" of Horace.

The phrase "guard about with triple-mailèd trust," in "Confessions of a Sensitive Mind," at once recalls the "robur et aes triplex" of Od. i., 3, 9. The figure in "Eleänore," vii.,

"His bow-string slacken'd, languid Love,"

is probably borrowed from Od. iii., 27, 67,

"perfidum ridens Venus et remisso
filius arcu,"

and the line in "The Lover's Tale,"

"And Death drew nigh and beat the doors of Life,"

seems to be adapted from Od. i., 4, 13.

"Pallida mors aequo pulsat pede pauperum tabernas
regumque turris."

The "wise indifference of the wise," in "A Dedication," and the "not to admire or desire," of "Maud," I. iv., 7, remind one of the "Nil admirari" of Ep. i., 6, 1. The "purple Cæsar" of the ode "To Virgil" may be due to the "purpurei tyranni" of Od. i., 35, 12, and the "brute earth" of "In Memoriam," cxxvii., is, in spite of Milton's use of the same phrase, "Comus," 797, probably derived from the "bruta tellus" of Od. i., 34, 9. The lines in "In Memoriam," ix.,

"Fair ship, that from the Italian shore
Sailest the placid ocean-plains," etc.,

and xvii.,

"So may whatever tempest mars
Mid-ocean, spare thee, sacred bark,"

are obviously a reminiscence of Horace's "godspeed" to the ship which was conveying Virgil to Athens, Od. i., 3, as the Christmas scene in canto cvii. of the same poem is adapted from the ode to Thaliarchus, i., 9. In "In Memoriam," lxxxix.,

"And break the livelong summer day
With banquet in the distant woods,"

Tennyson must have had in his mind the language of Od. ii., 7, 6.

"cum quo morantem saepe diem mero
fregi,"

and another line of the same canto,

"The dust and din and steam of town,"

is curiously like the

"fumum et opes strepitumque Romæ,"

of Od. iii., 29, 12. The first stanza of the poem entitled "Will,"

"O well for him whose will is strong," etc.,

is deeply indebted for its sentiment and tone to the opening lines of Od. iii., 3,

"Iustum et tenacem propositi virum," etc.;

to mention only a single detail, the lines

"Who seems a promontory of rock," etc.,

must have been suggested by Horace's man of "rock-like purpose," "solida mente." That is, the figure is suggested by the Horatian passage, although it is apparently worked out after the model of Latinus's resistance to the popular clamor, Aeneid, vii., 586-90. The Cleopatra of "A Dream of Fair Women,"

"*I died a queen.* The Roman soldier found
Me lying dead, my *crown* about my brows,
A name for ever!—lying robed and *crown'd*,
Worthy a Roman spouse,"

is clearly the Cleopatra "generosius perire quaerens" of Od. i., 37,

"scilicet invidens
privata deduci superbo
non humilis mulier triumpho."

A part of the description in "Edwin Morris,"

"I call'd him Crichton, for he seem'd
All-perfect, finish'd to the finger nail,"

seems to be borrowed from Sat. i., 5, 32, "ad unguem factus homo," and the expression in "Becket," Act IV., Sc. 2,

"madden him—madden
Against his priest beyond all hellebore,"

is probably due to Ars Poetica, 300, "tribus Anticyris caput insanabile." The ancient superstition of the "Morte d'Arthur,"

"till on to dawn, when dreams
Begin to feel the truth and stir of day,"

and of "The Vision of Sin,"

"I had a vision when the night was late,"

is perhaps derived from Sat. i., 10, 33,

"post mediam noctem visus, cum somnia vera,"

although the superstition itself is much older than Horace.

To the foregoing list of more or less conscious reminiscences we may add a few other parallels which it is perhaps safer to regard as accidental or independent. In the latest and best of our shorter manuals of Latin Literature, Mr. J. W. Mackail has remarked, p. 116, that the "Jubilee Ode" is curiously like the "Carmen Saeculare," "in its metrical ingenuities, and in the way in which the unmistakable personal note of style sounds through its heavy and formal movement." The line in "A Dream of Fair Women,"

"Saw God divide the night with flying flame,"

bears a striking verbal resemblance to the

"Diespiter
igni corusco nubila dividens,"

of Od. i., 34, 5-6. The exquisite lines in "Mariana,"

"Her tears fell with the dews at even;
Her tears fell ere the dews were dried,"

have been called an obvious adaptation from a beautiful fragment of Cinna,

"Te matutinus flentem conspexit Eous,
et flentem paulo vidit post Hesperus idem";

but they have at least as close a parallel in Horace, Od. ii., 9, 10-12,

"nec tibi Vespero
surgente decedunt amores
nec rapidum fugiente solem,"

a passage which itself recalls the lament of Orpheus, Virgil, Geor. iv., 466,

"te veniente die, te decedente canebat."

Both Cinna and Horace, it will be noticed, allude to the identity of Hesperus (Vesper) and Lucifer (Eous Phosphoros); so, too, does Catullus, lxii., 34,

"Nocte latent fures, quos idem saepe revertens,
Hespere, mutato comprendis nomine eosdem";

and so does Tennyson, "In Memoriam," cxxi. But the careless astronomy of the ancient poets, in which it seems possible for the same planet to be both morning and evening star at the same season of the year, has no place in the characteristic accuracy of Tennyson,

"Sweet Hesper-Phosphor, double name
For what is one, the first, the last,
Thou, like my present and my past,
Thy place is changed; thou art the same."

Horace has his own brook that "goes on for ever," Ep. i., 2, 43,

"labitur et labetur in omne volubilis aevum,"

the "divinely gifted man" of "In Memoriam," lxiv., who

"breasts the blows of *circumstance*,"

has his counterpart in the Ulysses of Ep. i., 2, 22,

"adversis *rerum* immersabilis undis,"

and the "I shall have had my day" of "Maud," XI., i., may be compared to the "Vixi" of Od. iii., 29, 43. Such phrases as "the Motherless mother," "faultily faultless, splendidly null," "faith unfaithful kept him falsely true," remind one of the "insanientis sapientiae" of Od. i., 34, 2, the "splendide mendax" of Od. iii., 11, 35, the "iuris peierati" of Od. ii., 8, 1. In many other phrases Tennyson seems to repeat the language of the Odes and Satires: "the many-headed beast (*sc.* the mob)," "some full-breasted swan fluting a wild carol ere her death," "I the divided half of such a friendship," "friends, none closer, elm and vine," "cook'd his spleen," "the many-winter'd crow," "the Parthian dart," "the Danaïd of a leaky vase," etc.; but these are commonplaces of the poets, not sentiments or epithets original with Horace.

Finally, we may mention one or two poems in which Tennyson is indebted to Horace in the matter of metre, and quote from the new Memoir his judgment of the metrical quality of the Roman Laureate's odes. Among the many metres which he invented he was especially proud of that of "The Daisy," which he called "a far-off echo of the Horatian Alcaic" (i., 341). The invitation "To the Rev. F. D. Maurice" is eminently Horatian in structure and in tone; its metre is substantially the same as the metre of "The Daisy," but gains a slightly different effect by the dactyl which begins each fourth line. "The Horatian Alcaics," Tennyson once wrote, "are perhaps the stateliest metre in the world except the Virgilian hexameter at its best." His own Alcaics addressed to Milton, "O mighty-mouth'd inventor of harmonies," etc., read to the ordinary ear like the address of an English Horace to an English Pindar, but they were not intended, he said, for Horatian Alcaics; they were meant rather to imitate the lighter movement of the Alcaics of Greece (ii., 11). The Sapphics of Horace seemed to him much inferior to those of Sappho, and he would audaciously describe the Horatian stanza of that metre, alluding to the Adonic fourth line, as like a pig with its tail tightly curled. Yet he was deeply moved by the Roman dignity which Horace has imparted to the Sapphic in the "Non enim gazae," etc., of Od. ii., 16, 9 (ii., 500).

WILFRED P. MUSTARD.

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THE DISCOVERY OF PIRENE.

CORINTH, May 22, 1898.

Of all the famous fountains of Greece the most famous was Pirene. Pindar (choosing, no doubt, as always, an appellation of which his patrons would be proud) calls Corinth "the city of Pirene." That this fountain was a centre of the city's life is as certain as it was natural. In the "Medea" of Euripides the elders are spoken of as playing checkers "around the august water of Pirene." It is true that the fountain still bubbling up on Acro-Corinth bears the name of Pirene on the authority of Strabo. But Pausanias mentions a Pirene in the city, distinguished from all the other numerous fountains which supplied Corinth with abundant water by being fitted up with a series of chambers, like caves, out of which the water flowed into a basin.

This fountain, with a façade in two stories, it has been the good fortune of the American School to discover—not, however, without considerable pains. In our pioneer work of two years ago, besides locating and partly uncovering the theatre which gave us the first fixed point in the topography of Corinth, we dug twenty trial trenches, in one of which, in the valley east of the old temple, we found, at a depth of about fifteen feet, besides numerous walls, a street thirty feet broad paved with white limestone, with a water channel on each side of it running up and down the valley at right angles to our trench. When it came to resuming the work this year (serious work last year being hindered by the war), the choice was between continuing excavating the theatre, which, from its ruinous condition, promised no showy results, although something of importance might appear near by, and following up this pavement, in the hope of finding the agora, from which, by following Pausanias, we could line out the whole topography of the city. The hope from the latter alternative was larger, because the old temple must have stood near to the heart of the city. But we had no certainty of results, and the earth was very deep. But, regarding depth of earth as rather encouraging than otherwise, I decided to "buck the centre," even if it did seem hard to break.

With track and cars borrowed from the French at Delphi, we went to work, proceeding upward from our old trench. But it was slow work. After about three weeks the Government official attending said: "These are the first serious excavations that I ever heard of where there were no finds of any importance"; and when I saw the money given by friends of the School going off at the rate of forty dollars a day, with little to point out by way of return except a big hole and a pile of earth, I felt that I was proceeding with a halter around my neck, and was convinced that, if we did not soon find something which would amply satisfy our patrons, the excavation of Corinth would definitively close with this campaign, which would be regarded as a defeat.

A little further up the valley was a house with a garden around it. Two years ago our foreman, a German, had gone down a well in this garden, and, after entering a side passage, had returned covered with mud, bringing back a story of rooms with architectural decoration along a water channel which fed the well. At the time the story seemed somewhat fabulous; but this year we went down and saw the wonder with our own eyes, and found that it had not been exaggerated. The very moment that my eyes fell upon the chambers, I said, "These chambers are the Pirene of Pausanias." But we saw them only from their back sides, and when they were partly filled with earth. From that time, however, we turned all our energies to laying bare their front from the twenty-three feet of earth which covered it, measured from the surface of the soil to the flowing water. To avoid the delay which would ensue from waiting for Government expropriation, I purchased at private sale a part of the garden for about $70—a very high price, although we took three trees in a land where trees are scarce, and a well, which we, however, promised to replace in some way.

Cross walls intervened, and a big mass of Turkish masonry had to be blown apart with dynamite; but with feverish impatience we pushed our railroad to the front of Pirene. We have opened four chambers with arched entrances, and are well satisfied with the result. Into the fifth chamber the above-mentioned well is sunk, and through this well runs the aqueduct which supplies the fountain at the square of the modern village.

In removing this well we find a difficulty. Some of the villagers object to our opening a new well for a private individual who has already made so much money by the sale of his land as to excite envy. Particular exasperation was caused by our plan to insert a pump a little way back from the present well, because that would give the man an unfair advantage over his neighbors, who have no pumps. Even without these objections our task is difficult enough. Pirene is simply the mouth of several channels probably as old as Peirander. We have explored and mapped out about 400 metres of these as they come down from the foot of Acro-Corinth, cut in the soft rock or clay which is covered by the rock stratum of sea-formation, the edge of which one sees protruding as one comes up from Lechæon to Corinth. The chambers are laid out at the very edge of this stratum, which is here cut in a straight line. Their massive side-walls support it, and the upper part of the façade hides it from view. In making a new well about ten feet back from this façade, we must cut through about seven feet of this very hard rock to reach one of the water channels. It would be a great advantage to be obliged to drill only a small hole for a pump instead of slowly blasting a hole big enough for our proprietor to operate with his leather bucket. We hope, with official help and after some delay and expense, to reach our goal; but we shall fight it out if it takes all summer. All six chambers must be shown before we stop.

The fear of being stopped just short of this goal on account of the giving out of funds having cost one week ago several sleepless nights, I wrote to one who has already made the largest gift to the excavation of Corinth, and whom I had recently met in Athens, explaining the situation and telling him that £100 would relieve me of all anxiety, while half that sum or even less might pull me through. In five days I received a telegram saying, "Hundred sent." Later came a letter more cheering almost than the money, closing with the words: "Here is your hundred. I am glad to be interested to that extent in your work."

Pirene, when completely excavated, will rank with the Temple and Acro-Corinth as a thing to visit. But this is not its whole significance. It is the long-sought key to the topography of Corinth. The agora is a little further up on the road leading through the valley. We uncovered two years ago what now appears to be the base of the bronze Herakles, the only object mentioned by Pausanias between the agora and Pirene on the road to Lechaeon, the harbor on the Corinthian Gulf. The road with the broad pavement and the water courses we have now followed up until it comes to the foot of a broad marble staircase, which, after about twenty-five low steps, disappears under a field to the south of the area already expropriated. We have also in successive soundings traced this road northward a third of a mile, almost to the edge of the lower terrace where the city wall stood. There is no longer any doubt that this was the road from the agora to Lechaeon. Adjacent to it on the right fall the Baths of Hadrian, just as they should according to the description of Pausanias. This is the big brick building in the bowels of which we rummaged two years ago, and to which we then with some hesitation gave the right name. Next year we may easily find the agora itself; but our present result is hardly less important than that.

An incidental result of what we have already done is the giving of a name to the venerable ruin which has so long stood as the only landmark of ancient Corinth. It is the Temple of Apollo, the first object mentioned by Pausanias on the right of the road leading out of the agora towards Sikyon. We have made incidental finds at last in nearly every department of archæology—statues, inscriptions, bronzes, and vases. These are rewards thrown in to relieve the monotony of our work; but in some eyes they may seem important enough to be principal.

The life here is rather exacting, requiring early rising and close attention. It also brings constant annoyance from the fact that we are not masters of a broad area as are the French at Delphi, and so have to pacificate many crotchety individuals in order to carry through our work. But when one sees the first rays of the rising sun striking Kyllene near at hand, and Parnassos across the Corinthian Gulf, it is like taking a refreshing draught which strengthens one to meet the hard day. The location of Corinth is, after all that can be said in praise of Sparta and Argos, the finest in Greece. But the most cheering sight of all to me is the face of Pirene. RUFUS B. RICHARDSON.

Correspondence.

THE CLERGY AND THE WAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am a constant reader of your exceedingly able paper. Your views on the war, silver, and protection are most acceptable to me. Your logic being usually so good, it surprises me greatly that you should be so "off" in your criticisms upon "Christians praying one against the other." This argument would strike at all prayer. Our Father in heaven of course knows all things, and knows what is best for his children, who are poor, ignorant, short-sighted creatures, in spite of the boasted enlightenment of this much vaunted nineteenth century. It is the

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same in war as in everything else in which we have to seek for aid beyond our own resources. You think the Almighty is a lover of peace, and therefore must be displeased when his children proceed to the extremity of war. Let us look into this.

All things are right or wrong. If a thing is right, or a good thing to do, then we can ask the blessing of God upon it; if it is wrong, we should be fools to ask it, for we know he cannot approve of what is sinful. Now the question is, Is it lawful to go to war? We will leave this war out of the question, for I disapprove of it as heartily as you do—or *did* before it commenced. Let us take it in the abstract. Is war lawful? I suppose every one will acknowledge that it is, until we get some better way of settling national difficulties. If it is not sinful, then, each side in a quarrel can consistently ask God's blessing on its cause. Our minds are too finite to grasp things in their entirety, and human nature is very prone to selfishly look on its own side as right. So both sides ask God's help, and leave it to him to decide which is right, or which cause being successful will be most advantageous to the good of mankind at large.

As to the great numbers that are killed in battle being displeasing to Almighty God, we cannot judge of the Great Being as one would of an ordinary man. The human race would become too numerous if people were not killed off by railroad accidents, storms at sea, earthquakes, floods, and individual deaths by disease and old age. Death is the only means by which human beings can go to heaven; and, whether they die singly or "en masse," the simple fact of their death is not displeasing to God, but our wrong-doing in unnecessarily depriving them of life, the greatest of all earthly blessings. So it seems to me there is nothing inconsistent in the American bishops praying for their side to win, if they think their cause a just one, and the Spanish bishops can bring forward the same argument. You object to prayers being said after mass for those who fall in battle on our side. I can assure you that our bishops will pray just as fervently for all the poor Spaniards who fall in this sad unnecessary war, for we Catholics always pray for our enemies, and for all the souls in purgatory, regardless of what their creed may have been.

I apologize for intruding this letter upon you, but, as you have many Catholics among your subscribers, I should think you ought to be more chary of singling them out for unjust criticism. A. Dooley.

Richmond, Va., May 30, 1898.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is doubtless a matter of regret to you that the clergy are not arrayed on the side of despotism, cruelty, and rapine. All over this land the Protestant clergy are lifting up their voices in behalf of the oppressed, and preaching the text, "I came not to bring peace, but a sword." Nations, like individuals, are sometimes slow to follow in the path of equity and justice, and gleaming swords are sent among them like the fiery serpents among the Israelites. Spain is about to *rediscover America*, to find that a land of Protestant churches, innumerable school-houses, and a free and untrammelled press, will not pass by on the other side while their brother (though he be a Roman Catholic) lies helpless and bleeding.

I should be pleased to see you right on this matter; and when the war is over, and justice and humanity are again established, if you will use your influence for the extirpation of the gold standard and the consequent uplifting of the masses, you will deserve the gratitude and not the reproach of,

Yours sincerely, Wm. F. Doherty.

Schuylkill Haven, Pa., May 31, 1898.

THE ENGLISH EXAMINATION AT BRYN MAWR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The entrance examination in English recently held at Bryn Mawr College, Pennsylvania, seems to me worthy on one account of a more general notice than it would otherwise deserve. I refer to the fact that the examination in question dealt with a subject that cannot fairly be considered as included among the requirements for admission as stated in the college catalogue. That your readers may judge of this matter for themselves, I give the requirement as it appears in the Bryn Mawr Catalogue for 1897, and the subject for composition assigned in the examination paper:

"In 1898, candidates must be familiar with Chaucer's *Knight's Tale;* Shakespeare's *Macbeth* and *Midsummer Night's Dream;* Milton's *L'Allegro*, *Il Penseroso*, *Lycidas*, and *Paradise Lost*, Books I. II.; Addison's *Sir Roger de Coverley Papers;* Matthew Arnold's *Essay on Gray* and *Essay on A Guide to English Literature;* Wordsworth's *Michael* and *The Leach Gatherer;* Coleridge's *Ancient Mariner* and *Christabel;* Shelley's *Adonais* and *Sensitive Plant;* Keats's *Eve of St. Agnes;* Hawthorne's *House of the Seven Gables;* Pater's *Child in the House;* and Stevenson's *Master of Ballantrae.*"

The examination question purporting to be based on this list is as follows:

"Give a short account in chronological order of the chief periods in the history of English literature and the chief authors in each period, in so far as such an account may be collected from the books prescribed for this examination."

It is clear that the requirement laid down by the college in its Catalogue is one thing, and the actual requirement, withheld until the very moment of the examination, is quite another. An attempt is indeed made to establish some show of connection by the clause "in so far as such an account may be collected from the books prescribed," but a moment's reflection will convince us of the futility of this attempt, as the books do not contain "such an account" and it consequently cannot be "collected" from them. Familiarity with the "Knight's Tale" does not in itself give the student the required knowledge of its author, his chief contemporaries, or the literary period to which he belongs; and the same argument is equally applicable, with but two unimportant exceptions, to every one of the books prescribed. In a word, the Catalogue requires a familiarity with certain specified literary masterpieces, while the question demands in effect a résumé of the literary history of England.

The only "books" on the list which could possibly aid the student to pass the examination are the two essays of Arnold. The essay on "Gray" is clearly useless for that purpose, as it deals in a general and somewhat incidental manner with a brief and comparatively inactive period of literary history—an interval between two "great periods." The second essay is not a comprehensive survey of the course of the literature, but a review of Stopford Brooke's 'Primer'; it has but little permanent value, and certainly affords no definite and material help to a young student otherwise uninformed. I believe that no competent teacher would contend that this essay by itself gives the beginner that exact chronological knowledge of the chief periods in the history of English literature, and of the chief writers in each period, called for by the requirement.

No exception is here taken to the subject in itself; indeed, the present writer has long urged that every student who enters college should have an outline knowledge of the history of literature, and Bryn Mawr's persistent refusal to require such a knowledge has long been with him a matter for regret. But no knowledge of English literature on its historical side having been required by Bryn Mawr in any previous entrance examination, a change of policy in this matter should in common fairness have been announced in advance. Every college has an unquestioned right to set such a standard for entrance as it may deem wise or expedient, but no college has any right, legal or moral, to announce one standard for an examination in its Catalogue, and then, without previous warning, to substitute another. Such a positive breach of contract gives to every candidate a just ground of complaint.

Henry S. Pancoast.

Germantown, Pa.

AN APPEAL TO SENATORIAL COURTESY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As you seem so well acquainted with Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge, Senator from Massachusetts, will you please do me a favor or two? In his "The Story of the Revolution" in the May number of *Scribner's Magazine* he says: "Carleton *descended* from Canada"; "He came *down* the lakes to Crown Point"; "Burgoyne took his way *down* Lake Champlain." (Italics mine.) Will you please tell Mr. Lodge that the water of Lake Champlain does *not* run up hill?

Further, will you please ask him why he labels a picture of Amherst's stone barracks in Amherst's fort, built about 1759, "Ruins of old Fort Frederick, Crown Point, at the Present Time"? And, while you have his attention, ask him to give his authority for calling, on his map (p. 552), Valcour Island "Valcours" Island, and the Big Chazy (or Champlain) River "Chateaugay" River. You need not ask him why, on the same map, he calls Missisquoi Bay "Missisquoi *Lake*," or why this map says "Ft. Ann" and his text "Fort Anne"; but these other curiosities do disturb my sleep o' nights.

Very respectfully,

D. S. Kellogg, M.D.

Plattsburgh, N. Y., June 5, 1898.

Notes.

The Baker & Taylor Co. have in preparation a 'Life of George Müller' of Bristol, England, by the Rev. Arthur T. Pierson, D.D.

Nearly ready, from Ginn & Co., is 'Selections from the Correspondence between Schiller and Goethe,' edited by John G. Robertson, Lector in the University of Strassburg.

The Werner Co., Akron, O., will shortly issue 'The Determination of Sex,' by Prof. Leopold Schenck.

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Mr. Nathan Haskell Dole, Jamaica Plain, Mass., will distribute this week his bi-lingual edition of Omar Khayyám already described in these columns.

A revised and enlarged edition of Justin McCarthy's 'Life of Gladstone' will be published immediately by the Macmillan Co., who also announce 'Persephone, and Other Poems,' by Charles Camp Tarelli.

To compete with unauthorized English versions of Sienkiewicz's 'With Fire and Sword,' Mr. Jeremiah Curtin's translation has been brought out anew by Little, Brown & Co. in a cheapened popular edition, which will appeal to those who like to enjoy their author while doing justly by him.

Minister Romero, whose 'Geographical and Statistical Notes on Mexico' we noticed a week or two ago, has now brought out an edition of that useful manual, bound up with a translation of various writings of his on the culture of coffee and india-rubber in Mexico. The Putnams publish this, as they did the other volume.

Good portraits of Balzac, Paul Heyse, François Coppée, and Daudet accompany as many volumes in the series of grouped short "Stories by Foreign Authors" for some time in hand with Charles Scribner's Sons. The volumes are pleasant to the eye and convenient to hold, and it is needless to say that they offer entertaining reading.

The bound volume of the *Century Magazine* for the six months November, 1897, to April, 1898, inclusive, leads us through interesting Tennysoniana and Huxleyana to Klondike adventure, Mr. Kobbé's pacific stories of heroes in civil life, and the sanguinary seafights between the *Huascar* and the *Cochrane* and *Blanco* off the coast of Bolivia nearly twenty years ago. Much in this fashion, meanwhile, the country has with rapid change passed from a state of mind still tolerant of things of the spirit to one preoccupied with slaughter by sea, and presently by land.

Mr. James W. Alexander's recent magazine article, 'Princeton, Old and New,' revised, amplified, and lavishly illustrated, is now issued as a small book (Scribners), bound in a pleasing cover designed by Mr. F. Berkeley Smith. While the book has its chief interest for Princeton graduates, it might well attract strangers to that lovely place, whose natural beauties have lately been enhanced by some of the best college architecture in the country. Indeed, Blair Hall and the University Library have more of the true spirit of New and Magdalen than all the Victorian Gothic at Oxford. Attractive, too, is the individuality of Princeton College life as described by Mr. Alexander, than whom no one is more intimately acquainted with it.

An interesting and useful little book is Mr. H. E. Parkhurst's 'How to Name the Birds' (Scribners), which is designed to enable a bird-lover in the Eastern States to identify any of some three hundred birds that he may see on his rambles. Mr. Parkhurst's grouping of the birds for this purpose is as practical as it is novel. Instead of following the usual scientific method of proceeding by species and sub-species, any one of which may include, as happens with the thrushes, birds as widely differing in size, color, and habits as the brown-thrasher and the kinglet, Mr. Parkhurst arranges his birds in five divisions—summer, winter, and permanent residents, migrants, and birds of prey. These classes are subdivided under the dominating colors, so that, given the time of year and the size and most striking colors of any bird, it can be quickly run down by using the key. Indeed, Mr. Parkhurst believes that even the sparrow tribe can thus be distinguished by a close observer without killing specimens. The Appalachian birds are so well known to scientists, and our museums are so well equipped with their skins and nests, that whatever influence will direct ornithologists in the Eastern States towards a closer study of bird-life and away from bird-destruction is to be welcomed. This book should increase the taking of field notes on the migration, nesting, and feeding of birds. It can be carried in the pocket, has a map and three admirable illustrations, descriptive of anatomy and plumage, two in colors.

The 'Essais de Critique Dramatique' of M. Antoine Benoist (Paris: Hachette) treat of Sand, Musset, Feuillet, Augier, and Dumas *fils*. The dedication to Sarcey is not needed to inform us that the author is a pupil of the famous critic, but it is a proper acknowledgment of the debt he owes him. Reading Benoist is like reading Sarcey without the *bonhomie* and the wit and without the wonderful knowledge of dramatic literature possessed by the critic of the *Temps;* but for a permanent study that is an advantage.

Without being in any way original, the 'Propos Littéraires' of the Vicomte de Broc (Paris: Plon, Nourrit & Cie.) are pleasant reading, and may be recommended to those who desire to have a fair idea of some of the best writers of France without studying a history of literature. M. de Broc vaguely recalls Roche, whose anecdotic History of French Literature used to be the delight of women teachers, but the present volume is a more serious piece of work.

In France, it is well known, the *lycées de jeunes filles* have multiplied rapidly, and it is no longer the opportunity for secondary instruction that needs advocates, but rather the more general admission of women to the teaching force in secondary schools and their adequate training for such positions. Dr. Macé, in his 'Place à la Femme, surtout dans l'enseignement secondaire' (Paris: A. Charles), takes up the gauntlet for this cause; but he is especially desirous of having young women prepared to teach children Latin at an early age, orally, "entre deux caresses, . . . sans efforts en se promenant." We learn from his little book that at several lyceums for boys in Paris (viz., the Lycées Molière, Racine, Lamartine, Fénelon) women, instead of men, have been appointed as physicians, and, what is more surprising yet, that the head physician at the court of "Emperor Li-Hung-Tchang"(!) is a woman.

Paul Heyse's 'Martha's Briefe an Maria: Ein Beitrag zur Frauenbewegung,' after having been widely circulated through the columns of the *Gartenlaube*, has just passed through a second edition in pamphlet form (Stuttgart: Cotta). Their mild but earnest tone and charming style make these eleven letters the most artistic plea that could be imagined. They might be read with delight by thousands of young women in our colleges and universities, who would at the same time be helping their less fortunate sisters in benighted Bavaria—the proceeds of the sale going to the fund for a girls' gymnasium in Munich.

The July number of the *American Historical Review* will contain an article by Prof. W. G. Sumner on "The Spanish Dollar and the Colonial Shilling," and a letter of Jefferson's in which, at so early a date as 1783, he makes to George Rogers Clark a suggestion of a transcontinental exploration like that subsequently achieved by Capt. Lewis and by Clark's brother.

The "Cuba number" of the *National Geographic Magazine* for May is mostly devoted to an account, by Prof. Robert T. Hill, of the geographical relations of the island, its topography, flora (which includes over 3,350 native plants), climate (far less insalubrious, in his opinion, than is currently believed), agriculture, mineral resources (chiefly iron and copper), commerce, and the inhabitants and their government. The native Cubans, outside of Havana, he says, are a "gentle, industrious, and normally peaceable race. . . . It is their boast that no Cuban woman has ever become a prostitute, and crime is certainly almost unknown among them." There are no manufacturing industries, except tobacco and sugar, "the persistent policy of Spain having been to promote the importation of manufactured articles from the mother country." In Prof. Hill's travels over the island he saw but a single other industrial establishment, a mill for extracting oil from cocoanuts and making soap. Mr. Frank M. Chapman treats of the origin of West India bird-life, and the editor gives the statistics of the trade of this country with the island for the last ten years. There are several interesting illustrations and two maps—one topographical, the other shaded so as to show the devastated regions and the Spanish fortified posts and Cuban outposts.

The *Geographical Journal* for May contains a description, by H. W. Smyth, of a visit to the Siamese states on the northeastern coast of the Malay peninsula. Among the principal industries are tin-mining and the collection of edible birds'-nests. The value of the latter may be gathered from the fact that in one state a bird's-nest farm is leased by the Government at an annual rental of $10,000, while the yearly cost of the guard-boats alone is $5,000. The white nests bring ten dollars a pound. Baron Nordenskiöld, in an account of his observations of the effect of drift-ice in calming a rough sea, suggests the protection of exposed harbors by small floating breakwaters. Among other articles are an encouraging report on the condition and progress of a district of the British Central Africa Protectorate; and a paper on sea-beaches and sandbanks, by V. Cornish, embodying "a research upon the processes which distribute the detritus which enters the sea at its margin, and upon the behavior of the material distributed."

The Balkans seen from a bicycle is the subject of the opening article of the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for May. It consists of a series of entertaining sketches, by the Rev. H. Callan, of the scenery and the people of the western part of the peninsula. In his characterization of the Turk, the writer says that the rank and file of the people are "physically, morally, and socially sound," that the "common Turk, peasant or soldier, is a man whom you are bound to respect for his many good, sound qualities, *e. g.*, honesty, sobriety, modesty, bravery." He draws an impressive picture of the Governor-General, Suleiman Pasha, who told him "how hard it was to govern well or wisely in a régime that was not leaving the world, but that the world was leaving." Least hopeful of the other races are the Greeks, "who are developing too quickly, exceeding

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their natural means"; most interesting are the Albanians, in whom the bond of "guest friendship" is as strong as in the days of Herodotus and Xenophon. Following this in a number of exceptional value is an account by J. A. Greig, a Scottish missionary in Mantchuria, of a journey across that country to Vladivostok, and thence by rail, steamer, and tarantass to Moscow. The activity of Russia was evident at every point. Along its bank of the Amur, for instance, "at every few miles are villages, post, and military stations. On the Chinese side the great primeval forests are unbroken." Mr. Greig closes by saying that the three things which impressed him most were "the strength of Russia as a military power, the extent of useful, and in parts beautiful but undeveloped, territory she possesses in Siberia, and the great desirability to Russia of the sunny, fertile, and wealthy mineral province of Mantchuria." The journey from Kirin to Leith, we may add, took seventy-six days and cost $375.

Dr. Alexander Agassiz and Dr. Alfred Goldsborough Mayer, during a recent visit to the Great Barrier Reef of Australia, obtained some specimens of Medusæ, which they describe in the Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy at Harvard College (volume 32, No. 2). The first number of this volume contains a paper on Dactylometra by the same authors. Admirably executed plates accompany both articles.

A biographical sketch of the late Hubert Anson Newton, professor of mathematics in Yale University, appears in the Proceedings of the Royal Society of London for April 30. The writer selects two series of investigations to illustrate how much modern science owes to Prof. Newton, and gives a summary of their results. The first of these is his great work on November star-showers, which led to the discovery of the real orbit of the meteors. The other is the explanation of the motions of periodical and non-periodical comets. The same number contains a notice of Sir Richard Quain, the eminent physician and editor of the 'Dictionary of Medicine,' with which his name will always be associated. The Croonian Lecture on "The Nature and Significance of Functional Metabolism in the Plant," by Dr. Wilhelm Pfeffer, and the Bakerian Lecture, on "Further Experiments on the Action exerted by certain Metals and other bodies on a Photographic Plate," by Dr. W. J. Russell, are to be found in these Proceedings for April 28.

The loan exhibition of book-plates and super-libros held by the Club of Odd Volumes at the Boston Museum during the past five weeks, under the auspices of the Print Department, has been attended by the publication of a catalogue which all collectors will be glad to own. An historical introduction of twenty-two pages; the list of pieces arranged by country (the United States constituting one-half); a list of American designers and engravers not named in the catalogue, but who have executed plates for public libraries; the list of super-libros ("outward signs of the ownership of books"); the bibliography; and finally the list of designers and engravers and of owners embraced in the catalogue, make this little volume most useful for reference. It is beautified by several examples of book-plates in facsimile, of various periods, from Albert Dürer to Paul Revere and E. D. French.

The Managing Committee of the American School of Classical Studies at Athens will hold examinations for two fellowships in Classical Archæology on March 16-19, 1899, both at the School and at the American School in Rome, and in America at any of the universities and colleges represented on the Managing Committee. A third (Agnes Hoppin Memorial) Fellowship has been established, with an income of $1,000, and will be awarded to any woman worthy of it in the Committee's opinion without examination, but not without evidence. Intention to compete for the first two fellowships must be in the hands of Prof. Benjamin I. Wheeler, Ithaca, N. Y., not later than February 1, 1899.

In these days of war maps we could not expect the great German cartographers to stay their hands. The Spanish-American seat of war is well shown, accordingly, in a folding map between paper covers, edited by Hermann Habenicht—an ominous name for Spain (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The scope of this chart embraces Newfoundland on the north, the Orinoco on the south, the whole of the West Indies, the United States east of the Mississippi, with part of Mexico and all of Central America. Cables are colored according to the nationality owning and controlling them. There are side maps of Cuba (to show disputed possession), Porto Rico, Havana, New York and its approaches, the Bermudas, and the North Atlantic, with currents and trade routes. Apart from the Philippines, this map will answer all ordinary purposes.

—The *Atlantic Monthly* for June has three articles on Education, the most noticeable of which is Frederic Burk's "Normal Schools and the Training of Teachers." He mentions the fact that in Massachusetts the number of pupils in these schools is decreasing, there having been a loss of 23 per cent. in the nine years 1888-97, as against a gain of 38 per cent. in the previous nine years. Mr. Hill, of the State Board of Education, suggests three reasons: the influence of the local training-schools for teachers, the influence of the higher standard of admission, and the influence of the colleges in attracting to their courses many who would otherwise attend normal schools. The second reason, however, "can hardly be considered a primary cause," because the higher standard was not enforced till 1896, while "the ebb-tide in attendance set in as early as 1888." Any one who will read carefully what Mr. Burk has to say of the method of instruction pursued in normal schools, will probably come to the conclusion that those who wish to qualify themselves for teaching can now get the substantive knowledge required elsewhere, and that the normal-school method at present in vogue is positively vicious. He declares that the normal school has "staked its fortune" upon the assumption that, for the preparation of teachers, a "substitute for knowledge" is possible and practicable. This substitute he describes as "the selected facts required by the common-school curricula, together with certain specific methods of teaching them according to the ordained principles which pupils are trained to believe are more or less fixed." Of the extraordinary importance attached to method, one gets an idea from Mr. Burk's account of what he calls "devices" for teaching. The pupil, for instance, is encouraged to devise a new method of teaching elementary branches. One draws out some cardboard elephants, horses, and bears, and explains that the child can by tracing lines round these draw a much more accurate elephant, horse, or bear than by free-hand drawing. Another draws a circle with radii on the blackboard, and at the centre puts the word "at." At the extremities of the radii, the consonants, *m*, *c*, and *r* are written. Thus the child learns at a glance the correlated words mat, cat, and rat. On the other hand, so little attention is paid to substance that, in a normal school, history may mean the bare facts of American history. No wonder that "State normal schools have been supplanted" by training-schools, colleges, and especially colleges for women. The principles of Horace Mann have been perverted to base uses, and his name is invoked to bolster up a deadly formalism which, were he alive, he would be the first to denounce. The *Atlantic* has introduced the improvement, which other magazines will perhaps follow, of putting all its verse together. This gives dignity to it, and, if generally adopted, will relieve editors of the grotesque charge brought against them by some poets, of regarding poetry merely as a sort of printers' "fat," to be used to fill up the blank spaces at the end of prose articles.

—*Scribner's* for this month, except for the continued contributions, is rather empty. The leading paper is an article on "Undergraduate Life at Vassar," by Margaret Sherwood, forming one of a number on undergraduate life in general which this magazine has been publishing. The article throws some light on the supposed deficiency of a "sense of humor" among women, a charge so often brought forward by masculine critics. It is obvious from such accounts as this that women have just the same sense of the ludicrous that men have—that is, they laugh just as much, and find just the same food for amusement in absurd, grotesque, and ridiculous contrasts. But as they have not necessarily the same interests as man, they do not necessarily laugh at the same things. For instance, when we are told that a debate was held at Vassar on the question, "Does a college education unfit men for domestic life?" and was decided in the affirmative, we perceive a secondary satiric intent, which must have provoked hearty amusement among the losers as well as the winners, but it is not a man's joke.

—The *Century* has three Spanish articles, one on Toledo, by Stephen Bonsal, with illustrations by Joseph Pennell; one called "Pictures for Don Quixote," by W. D. Howells, written to accompany drawings by Vierge; and one on the Spanish Armada, by William Frederic Tilton, based in part on "manuscript Irish correspondence in the London Record Office," and accompanied by a critical introduction by Capt. Mahan. The sum and substance of the story is that what accomplished the ruin of the Armada was mainly "very commonplace human mismanagement." Medina-Sidonia was an incompetent commander—we have his own word for it that he knew "nothing of the sea or of war," and had many times said that he was "unfit for a command at sea"; the vessels were not adapted for the kind of fighting they were expected to do, being neither swift enough nor handy enough; the English were better gunners and sailors. Finally, the security of the fleet, and the time and manner of the junction to be ef-

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fected with the Duke of Parma, commanding the Spanish army in the Low Countries, were left to chance. As to the disasters in the Atlantic after the fleet had got to the west of Ireland, these were due "either to original unseaworthiness, or to damage received in action, or to bad judgment in taking unweatherly ships too close to the shores of Ireland, where strong westerly gales prevailed and the coast was inhospitable." All these conditions were "preventable by human foresight and skill," but it is a curious fact that both sides attributed the result to a direct interposition of the Almighty. The reception which the wretched Spanish fugitives met with when wrecked on the Irish coast almost beggars belief, but outrageous cruelty was so much the rule three centuries since among civilized men that no great kindness was to be looked for from savages, who, as Capt. Cuellar reported, lived among their rugged hills like wild beasts. When it was a common fate for a prisoner of war to be knocked on the head in cold blood because he was one of the "poorer sort" who would bring no ransom, we cannot but feel that the historian may over-emphasize the difference between the civilized man of the period and the wild creatures among whom Capt. Cuellar fell.

—*Harper's* has for its chief illustrated articles an account of "The Czar's People," by Julian Ralph, and a paper on "The Trolley in Rural Parts," by Sylvester Baxter, who has a vision of the world that is to be, in which the face of nature will be a network of trolleys, and every citizen of moderate means, as he now has his bicycle, will have his private trolley-car, with which he will go anywhere he likes, taking his household and friends with him. Already the new systems are pushing far into the country. Capt. Mahan contributes an article on "Current Fallacies upon Naval Subjects," which, if we are not mistaken, consists itself very largely of a fallacy—that of confounding actual with potential preparation for defence. What induces other nations to respect or to heed the wishes of the United States is not merely the number of its ships or regiments, but a reserve force, consisting partly of its wealth, and which has on every occasion enabled it to deal successfully with every foe it has encountered. Most Americans believe that this reserve force counts for far more than any other one thing in making the country respected abroad. Most people think, too, that one of the best ways of increasing this potential defence would be to pay off the national debt as fast as possible. But if they are not right, then the only alternative is to make every man a soldier, as on the Continent, by actually training him as such, and having a navy equal at least to the two greatest navies in the world (this being England's plan with reference to her European rivals). Captain Mahan shrinks from any such conclusion, but he assumes throughout that we are surrounded by neighbors who are merely waiting for an opportunity to pounce down upon us and tear us to pieces. For instance, he makes the exclusion of "direct European political control" of the Isthmus Canal as much a matter of "national defence" as "the protection of New York harbor." Is there any evidence that any European nation contemplates exclusive control? The only nation in the world that has threatened exclusive control is the United States. The fact is, that Captain Mahan, when he wanders out of his own field of naval strategy, and undertakes to discuss questions which are part political and part economic, is feeble; he writes like a doctrinaire. In the present article his remarks on obsolescent ships are valuable; his observations on law and government show clearly that he is quite out of his depth in writing about them. In one extraordinarily confused passage he suggests that the Mexican war, though it may have been "unjust," was not necessarily "wrong"; and maintains that "law" is "set aside . . . at every election."

—The Harvard *Law Review* for June has a valuable article by Prof. J. B. Thayer on "The Present and the Future of the Law of Evidence," a subject on which he always speaks with authority. The article is a model of condensation, for in seventeen pages the writer manages to bring before the reader's mind the principal features of the common-law system of evidence, while in seven more he disposes of the question of needed reforms and how we should get them. Of the drift of this learned essay as a whole, it is impossible in the space at our command to give an adequate idea; we can only refer to one or two practical points. Prof. Thayer insists that decisions as to evidence in the trial court should be generally final. This would do away with one great abuse productive of enormous delay and expense in this country, and, curiously enough, nonexistent in England—that of trying a case "for exceptions." In the United States, questions of evidence "are generally taken up (*i. e.*, appealed) on exceptions, a procedure never common in England, and now abolished there, which presents only a dry question of law—not leaving to the upper court that power to heed the general justice of the case which the more elastic procedure of the English courts so commonly allows, and tending thus to foster delay and chicane." Every one knows that it is a constant incident of the administration of justice with us that a case is tried in order to get one or two exceptions to evidence which may be sufficient in the appellate court to upset the verdict—the theory being that if, with the objectionable evidence admitted or rejected, the jury *might* have rendered a different verdict, then the whole case must be tried over again. Prof. Thayer would first have a thorough revision of the whole law of evidence for the purpose of eliminating from it what are really rules of substantive law (this thorough revision is the work on which he has been engaged for many years); and if some one asks whether his suggestions are not in a measure directed against jury trial itself, he says that the reduction of the volume of jury trials would not be an unmixed evil, and in many jurisdictions, *e. g.*, in Massachusetts, this volume has been greatly reduced by the introduction of the simple rule that cases will be tried without a jury unless a party in interest asks for it. But assuming jury trial to continue in the main as at present, the great fundamental principles for its regulation are simple. The testimony must be given orally in court in the presence of the jury; the parties must have the right to cross-examine; writings must be produced for inspection; unnecessary, irrelevant, confusing and misleading evidence must be excluded; new trials must be had where injustice would otherwise be done. Jury trial is based on a few great principles like these, and if they were kept steadily under the oversight and control of the court "by being dealt with as rules of court," our system of evidence "might be vastly improved, and be made conformable to the changing convenience of mankind."

—The Colonial Society of Pennsylvania some time ago announced its intention of reproducing the *American Weekly Mercury*, the first newspaper issued in America south of Boston, from its commencement in 1719 to its close in 1752. The publication of this paper was begun in Philadelphia in December, 1719, by Andrew Bradford, a son of the founder of the press in the Middle Colonies. The father, William Bradford, settled in Philadelphia in 1685, and was forced, in 1693, to seek in New York the freedom of thought which was denied to him by the persecuting spirit of the religious faction then dominant in Pennsylvania. Andrew Bradford, some twenty years later, revived his father's business in Philadelphia, and continued it successfully until his death, in 1744. The newspaper, which he began to publish in 1719, did not die with him, but was continued by his widow until 1752, when it was finally suspended. The reprint of the first volume is an absolute facsimile, prepared under the care of Mr. Julius F. Sachse, from the copy now in the Philadelphia Loganian Library, and the only one known to exist. A glance at the volume is all that is necessary to show the excellence of the reproduction. The committee in charge of the work have spared neither pains nor expense to make it both attractive and useful—witness their elaborate index, which opens up a field of information of the greatest utility to the historian and genealogist. The latter will find the advertisements a very fruitful, if not always an entirely pleasing, source of information; while the former, in the communication "To the Printer," will discover much valuable matter which has been hitherto overlooked. The shipping news not only is an interesting showing of the growth of Philadelphia's commerce, but supplies curious details as to the movements of the ancestors of many Americans of to-day. The volume is bound in brown cloth, and sells at seven dollars and a half.

GENERAL MEADE.

Life of General George Gordon Meade, Commander of the Army of the Potomac. By Richard Meade Bache; with portraits and maps. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co. 1898. 8vo, pp. xxii, 596.

General Meade came of a family of Philadelphia merchants, largely engaged in commerce with the West Indies and with Europe, and prominent during several generations among the business men of that city. His father, after spending several years of his early manhood in business ventures in foreign parts, made his temporary residence in Spain, establishing a business house at Cadiz, where he resided seventeen years, down to 1820. The General was born there on the last day of 1815, and was therefore in his fifth year when the family was reassembled in the United States. As his father's purpose to return had been unchanged, though the absence was protracted by business exigencies, the children were natural-born citizens of this country; yet persons unfamiliar with law often annoyed General Meade with ignorant debate of the subject.

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He was appointed to the Military Academy at West Point in 1831, graduated in due course, but resigned in 1836 to devote himself to civil engineering. After several years devoted to railway construction and to work as a civilian assistant to army engineers running national boundary lines at both extremities of the country, he returned to the army in 1842, as lieutenant in the corps of topographical engineers. In the Mexican war he served on General Taylor's staff in the opening campaign, and then with General Scott at the taking of Vera Cruz, but, being a supernumerary there, was not permanently attached to Scott's staff and returned home.

When the civil war broke out he was at the head of the list of captains in his corps, John Pope being next, with W. F. Smith, J. G. Parke, and G. K. Warren among the juniors. All of these became general officers of volunteers. Meade took the field in 1862 as Brigadier in the Pennsylvania Reserves, under General McCall as division commander. From that time he was in active service with the Army of the Potomac. He was commandant of division at South Mountain, Antietam, and Fredericksburg, commandant of corps at Chancellorsville, commandant of the army at Gettysburg, and commanding it as second to Grant from The Wilderness to Appomattox. In every subordinate position he had the fullest confidence of his superiors; but, by a fate not uncommon among soldiers, his elevation to the command of an independent army in the field led to a partial eclipse of his renown, generals of the first rank being few indeed in proportion to the number of respectable and even brilliant subordinates.

The victory at Gettysburg was of immense importance to the national cause, but as it was, on Meade's part, a purely defensive battle, it left open the question of his ability to conduct offensive operations. Mr. Lincoln was disappointed at what seemed to him a failure to reap the fruits of success. Assertions were made by officers of rank near Gen. Meade that he was unwillingly led to accept battle at Gettysburg, and, if left to himself, would have retired to the line of Pipe Creek, a day's march nearer Washington. It seems to be true that orders for such retreat were drafted and a council of war called to consider the subject, but the council voted that it was necessary to fight where the army was. The Potomac Army was stronger than Lee's, but the latter was not again brought to battle until Grant took the command in the field in the following year. Lee sent Longstreet's corps six hundred miles to join Bragg, and, after the mischief was done at Chickamauga, Hooker was sent from the Potomac army with a similar force and by a still longer circuit to Rosecrans to help repair the damage; but the two armies in Virginia did each other no harm.

It was in the nature of things that a change of some sort must be made, and it came in the form of Grant's appointment as Lieutenant-General and his taking active command in the field in Virginia, Meade being then reduced to the position of second in command. This, of course, involved some chafing. The principals seemed to get on well enough together, but about each were friends who looked askance at what was going on at the other headquarters. Grant generously insisted that Meade's promotion for subordinate work should keep pace with Sherman's for independent successful campaigns on a great scale. But when all was done, it was evident that grievances were laid up and jealousies cherished which must be brought to the light of day when the time for historical writing should come.

Meade's biography was an altogether appropriate task for his kinsman, Mr. Bache, who, though not himself a military man, had been a good deal in contact with military life, and had enjoyed the affectionate confidence of the General. It was also quite natural that Mr. Bache should conclude that, from Gettysburg onward, Meade's military biography must include a pretty full history of the campaigns of the Potomac Army, for his proposition turns out to be that Grant's influence there was only evil, and that continually. To put it in his own words:

"Taking it altogether, there never was in history, so far as I am aware, any case so detrimental as Grant's presence in the field with the real commander of the army, except that of a king, or a prince of the blood, who was formerly often there, as an inspiring influence or from military aspirations, and, from whatever motive, generally a hindrance instead of a help to military operations" (p. 403).

It is plain that if this proposition is to be established, thorough work must be made with the analysis of the campaign.

It would next seem a pity to deal fully with the latter half of the Potomac Army's history and give only bits of the first half by limiting the author to Meade's own part in it, and so the plan of the work seems to have widened out to a narrative of all the campaigns of that army. Mr. Bache does not find that any one of them, prior to Gettysburg, showed true military ability in the successive commanders. McDowell, Pope, McClellan, Burnside, Hooker, with Halleck as their chief, are all tried and found wanting. The criticisms upon them vary in harshness; those who were, at the time or subsequently, brought into controversy with Meade being flagellated with such exaggerated severity that it suggests a disposition to punish Meade's enemies more than to make a sound criticism of a campaign.

Yet many of the general statements of canons for judgment of military conduct are correct, and we cannot deny that the Army of the Potomac had failed to find a leader able to give it the triumphs its numbers, its discipline, and its courage deserved. If, however, we look for the application of these same rules of judgment to Meade's leadership from June, 1863, to March, 1864, we are disappointed. The story here becomes a rather lame and painful apology for lack of results, and when we come to the systematic disparagement of Grant as a "hindrance instead of a help" to what Meade would have done in 1864, we think involuntarily of Lincoln's original answer to such disparagement in 1862, "At least, he fights"; and, destructive as it is, fighting is what an army is made for. Nothing but dogged, determined, and most costly fighting, East and West, brought the war to a successful end.

The assertions of Grant's incompetence turn out to be, in the main, mere assertions, though made with a self-assurance which is phenomenal. Let us take, for example, the crossing of the James River by the Potomac Army and the movement to Petersburg in June, 1864. Mr. Bache begins with the assertion that Grant left Meade "completely in the dark as to his ulterior purpose" (p. 460). He follows this up with the assertion that Grant "bungled the matter of his intended surprise of Petersburg" (p. 461); that he "did not in his memoirs scruple to ignore" his omission to inform Meade of his purpose (*ibid.*); that this not only was an "egregious error," but gave the case "the aspect of his having wished to signalize himself by a master stroke of strategy," and so "having purposely withheld from him [Meade] information which should have been imparted" (p. 467). Instead of proving all this, the author excuses himself on the ground that "space does not admit" it, but he is sure his assertions will be found correct by the reader who carefully examines the records and histories, and that "it is only too sadly confirmed by the evasion of Grant himself and his accredited historian Badeau" (p. 460).

As to the "evasion," the industrious reader will be amused to find that Grant, instead of evading, squarely states in his memoirs that, immediately on his return from the visit to Gen. Butler on June 14, at which the attempt to take Petersburg was arranged, he "communicated to Gen. Meade, in writing, the directions I had given to Gen. Butler," and instructions to hasten details of coöperation (Memoirs ii., 294). The amusement will be increased when the diligent one turns to the Official Records, and finds Grant writing to Meade himself within a fortnight of the event, "I am very much mistaken if you were not informed of the contemplated movement against Petersburg, as soon as I returned to Wilcox's Landing from Bermuda Hundred, and that the object of getting the Second Corps [Hancock's] up without waiting for the supply train to come up to issue rations to them, was that they might be on hand if required. I arranged to have rations sent down from Bermuda Hundred to issue as the troops crossed" (O. R. xl, pt. 1, p. 315). This letter was written in reply to Meade's endorsement on Hancock's request for investigation; and while there is room for doubt whether it was officially transmitted, the event showed that its contents were made known and acquiesced in. It stated that Grant found no fault with Hancock or Meade for the delay in the advance of the Second Corps from Windmill Point.

If we strive to follow still further Mr. Bache's suggestion to examine the Records, we find in Meade's communication to Hancock internal evidence that Grant had given him the results of the visit to Butler precisely as he stated. Grant's original directions had been that the troops, on crossing the James, should encamp at the nearest suitable place on the south side (*Id.*, pt. 2, p. 1). At 8:30 A. M. of the 14th, Meade accordingly ordered Hancock to begin crossing to Windmill Point in transports at once, and to "encamp on suitable ground after crossing the river" (*Id.*, p. 24). The shallowness of the water at the south bank was a cause of delay, and the passage took all day and most of the night. Grant wrote to Butler after getting back to his headquarters, telling him that Hancock's corps would all be over before daylight of the 15th, and would march in the morning direct for Petersburg, halting at the point on the road nearest City Point for further orders. He authorized Butler to send back to Hancock for support if it was needed. Butler was also directed to send rations for Hancock's men by water to Windmill Point, to save delay (*Id.*, p. 36). This letter was dated at 8 P. M. In the

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same evening we find Meade writing to Hancock, revoking the orders as to encamping, and saying, "You need not spend any time in taking up a line, but hold yourself ready to move, as you may receive orders to march to Petersburg, in which case rations will be sent you from City Point" (*Id.*, p. 27). No hour is marked on this dispatch, but its time is sufficiently fixed by the date of Hancock's answer, which is 9:25 P. M. At ten o'clock in the evening, Meade writes again, saying: "Gen. Butler has been ordered to send to you at Windmill Point 60,000 rations. Soon as these are received and issued you will move your corps by the most direct route to Petersburg, taking up a position where the City Point Railroad crosses Harrison's Creek, at the cross-roads indicated on the map at this point," etc. (*Id.*, p. 29). The facts here given could come to Meade from no one but Grant. They contain the essential facts and directions which are contained in Grant's letter to Butler of eight o'clock, and unanswerably confirm his statements before quoted.

We have to add to this that W. F. Smith's corps (the Eighteenth) had been sent, a day or two before, to Butler, by way of White House and steamboat transportation, and Meade had himself issued this order. He knew the force Butler thus had on hand, and its position, threatening Petersburg; and no one could so grievously attack his intelligence as a soldier as he who would argue that he did not know the meaning of the order for Hancock's hasty advance, from the circumstances, even if the explicit statement that Butler was about to attack Petersburg had been accidentally omitted. But the quotations Meade made from Grant's communication settle all that.

The records also throw a curious sidelight upon the little things which, in war, may baffle the best calculations. As a matter of fact, Hancock's corps was not out of rations, and had no need to delay for them. He had written to Meade on the 14th that he had three days' rations from that morning, which would carry him to the night of the 16th (*Id.*, p. 25). But no notice seems to have been taken of this by Meade, and the representations that Hancock's men were hungry, made Grant order Butler to send down a supply by water in the night. As Meade's dispatches still continued to tell Hancock to receive and issue the 60,000 which would come to him, the latter naturally supposed there must be some strong reason for it, and waited till the middle of the forenoon of the 15th before marching. At 7:15 A. M. he was deceived by a report that the rations had arrived, and at 7:30 Meade ordered him to march without them, but added a postscript leaving it optional in view of the report that they had come (*Id.*, p. 57). The result of it all was that the column did not get in motion till 10:30.

Yet Butler was not in fault. He had ordered the rations to be sent, and the Quartermaster started them from City Point in the schooner *Susan*, with a steamboat alongside. The vessel was probably one of the supply fleet loaded with assorted rations, and the intent was to save handling the freight. But the *Susan* drew eleven feet of water and could not come to the shallow landing at Windmill Point (*Id.*, p. 58)! The chapter of accidents and small blunders was thus completed by "the total depravity of inanimate things"; and, if we may paraphrase a passage from Mr. Bache (p. 555), Grant, who had Scotch blood in his veins, may have recalled the couplet,

"The best laid plans o' mice and men
Aft gang agley."

The example given is a perfectly fair specimen of Mr. Bache's inability to judge reasonably of Grant and his conduct. He fails to read or to understand the record, and seems to see facts and conclusions from them alike distorted by his own prejudices. When he ends by suggesting that Grant could by any possibility be aided in "signalizing himself" by hiding from Meade the purpose which the latter must assist in carrying out, the thing becomes childish. The correspondence between Grant and Butler was there to settle the "priority of invention," and no subsequent frankness with Meade could imperil it. Grant was never expansive, but finesse in making a mystery of his plans was not in his line. As he, from the first, exonerated Meade as well as Hancock from blame for his disappointment, Mr. Bache's violence is gratuitous and wanton.

It must be remembered that Butler was also an army commander independent of Meade, and as such was intrusted with the direct movement on Petersburg. He was directed not to make the attempt unless it was reasonably sure to succeed with the force which he had in hand; but in the unexpected contingency of needing assistance, he was to send back to Hancock for it. The latter by every fair reckoning would be within short supporting distance, and Butler's or Smith's official word that they were authorized to call on him for aid would, by every military rule and custom, be sufficient. That all were ordered to move rapidly was the fact, but it would have been none the less their military duty if not a word had been said about it. Finally, Butler was Meade's senior, and if Grant, as Mr. Bache's official marplot, had been absent, Meade would have had the pleasure of reporting personally to Butler for orders. We do not need Mr. Bache to tell us how he would have enjoyed it.

MORE NOVELS.

A Spanish Maid. By L. Quiller Couch. London: Service & Paton; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

The Beth Book. By Sarah Grand. D. Appleton & Co.

The Celebrity: An Episode. By Winston Churchill. Macmillan.

Mrs. Knollys, and Other Stories. By F. J. Stimson. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A Night in Acadie. By Kate Chopin. Chicago: Way & Williams.

The War of the Worlds. By H. G. Wells. Harper & Brothers.

Mr. Quiller Couch, in his new story, has imported into the already eerie atmosphere of Cornwall a fresh element of mystery from Spain. The uncanny traits of Carmen and the Flying Dutchman have been blended in the episode of the visit of a bewitching Spanish maiden to the good fisher folk of Landecarrock. Arrived by means supernatural, her conduct is such as is merely natural to the siren of song and story, the "minx with a way with her" of Mrs. Humphry Ward's felicitous christening. She is the spirit of evil incarnate in beauty's own shape, and she acts accordingly—from the time that fisher-boy 'Zekiel rescues her, to his own undoing, to the moment when incensed Landecarrock chases her down to the sea, and she is caught up again in the supernatural. The tale is painful, but there are cheery glimpses through the storm, and a bright gleam in the west as the story goes down. An antiquarian parson, his little granddaughter, who dreams dreams of princes, the sound-hearted young squire of the village, the long-suffering hostess of the Spanish waif, the victimized 'Zekiel, and the wicked spirit herself, are well drawn; and the indignant matrons and merry maidens, with the village gossip, grave-digger, and idiot, are well sketched in. There is a dreadful deal of weather in the book. The scene is set with frantic accompaniment of thunder and lightning; and though the case is one which Mendelssohn declared to be the only justification of heavy brass music—namely, "witches or some deep grief"—yet the din of it oppresses the mind's ear. We cannot think the book, imaginative though it is, quite as great a gain to literature as Mr. Quiller Couch's short stories. Those we have long delighted to honor as exquisite little creations. This is a readable book.

"Some things may be thought that cannot be said," sings Peacock's ballad, in which the monk thinks "Get up" aloud and the docile mule runs away. Mrs. Sarah Grand either has not read or does not agree with Peacock. There is *nothing* thinkable about Beth from the cradle to the second husband, from her complexion to her soul, that is not set down in 'The Beth Book.' For nearly six hundred pages we are chained to her, doomed to learn how she thought, felt, aspired, and rebelled, how she learned to eat, sew, bathe, and brush her hair, and even what vulgarities and obscenities she overheard in the streets. We learn how, in a *moment perdu*, she took to writing, and caught the mannerisms of the favorite author of the moment; how, when she was reading Macaulay, her own thought "jerked along in short, sharp sentences" (a perfect description of Macaulay's style), and how she caught the "peculiarities of De Quincey, too, of Carlyle, and also some of the simple dignity of Ruskin, which was not so easy"—all this before she discovered that coming "under the influence of academic minds" made her "artificial" and her English "turgid with Latinities." There is no fault to be found with Beth's determination "not to write plotty-plotty books nor make a pivot of the everlasting love-story"; but if those topics are eliminated, others as taking should be substituted. If there is "an absence of a true sense of proportion" in making love the centre of all stories, and we agree with Beth in thinking there is, surely there is as little balance in writing a book with no centre at all and swelling it with unwholesome ingredients to shapeless and dropsical hugeness. The implied confidence in public interest in this enormous mass of largely repulsive details almost reaches the sublime—yes, goes even a step further. "Poverty of mind accounts for the shortness of the book as a rule," says one of Mrs. Grand's characters, discoursing on authorship. If this explains the quantity of the narrative, the quality remains still unexplained and unexplainable. It would be going too far to say that there is nothing noble in it. There are fine thoughts and clever sayings, and a much insisted upon high purpose of emancipating woman from

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the tyranny of dissipated husbands. There is even a trace of amiability toward the monster, man, in a declaration that he is mainly bad through habit. Teach him that he can be as good as a woman, and he will learn to believe in himself. But, first, woman must shut him up in a dark closet and starve him on dry doctrine through the keyhole, and write books about him, and preach to him that he can be good, only he does not yet know it. A great deal of firmness and a little kindness make the method.

Beth's genius hovers over many fields; the piano, rabbit-killing, the exercise of what is called her "further faculty"—a sort of second sight which never accomplishes anything but to deprive her of the first; then writing, till finally, in a blaze of revelation, her mission is discovered to be public speaking in behalf of "the work," which, roughly stated, is the elevation of man without anæsthetics. For a woman who disbelieved so thoroughly in him, Beth had a susceptible head. (Love affairs never went to her heart, which was the organ of self-pity.) Her redemption from despair is accomplished by the daily sight of a horseman passing her door, with whom she never exchanged a word; she makes an engagement or two and a miserable marriage and a few friendships, and we leave her about to be redeemed again by a gentleman "in art." He is last seen stalking across the fields towards her with redemption in his eye and, let us hope, divorce papers in his pocket; for, to all seeming, she is still the wife of her very unpleasant first husband. This latest life-saver of hers is an American; and yet there are those who oppose the Monroe Doctrine!

'The Celebrity' is too good a story to spoil by outlining it and thus anticipating its surprises. It belongs, indeed, to vulgar literature, but is neither insincere nor unclean, and may safely be commended as a clever achievement in extravaganza, emitting, in a way not all extravagant, sparks of satire against the egoistic passion, and adorned with a portrait or two more living than mere penwork. Most notable of these is that of the Western magnate and turfman, who is made surprisingly possible though at once unbearable and a good fellow; superstitious, profane, kind, and "horsey," a man who gives as a wedding present to the bride and groom who animate the closing pages a *repoussé* silver urn bearing the design of Mercury driving four horses with tails docked (by special instruction to the artist).

"Mrs. Knollys" is and long has been a lovable little story. It tells how a glacier after forty years yielded up its dead, and it brings into an effective and affecting parallel the image of the slow march of the eternal ice, faithfully preserving, and the step of time down the course of human experience, relentlessly change-making. In short stories Mr. Stimson has never done better. Its followers in this volume we find something less successful, although they hold the attention, and are mainly on a theme dear to all the world—that of military and other conquerors blighted in every style by hopeless love for beautiful damsels.

Kate Chopin tells a story like a poet, and reproduces the spirit of a landscape like a painter. Her stories are to the bayous of Louisiana what Mary Wilkins's are to New England, with a difference, to be sure, as the Cape jessamine is different from the cinnamon rose, but like in seizing the heart of her people and showing the traits that come from their surroundings; like, too, in giving without a wasted word the history of main crises in their lives. That Cape jessamine is sometimes a thought too heavy is perhaps inevitable in the heated South. But enough there is of artistic in the best sense to hold the reader from cover to cover, transported for the time to a region of fierce passions, mediæval chivalry, combined with rags and bad grammar, a soft, sliding Creole accent, and the tragedies and comedies that loom with special meaning in a sparsely settled country.

As is well known, the scientifically gruesome is Mr. Wells's forte. In his 'Thirty Strange Stories' we supped on thirty kinds of horror, each course a brief one. But in the 'War of the Worlds,' which is a novel, we are sated with one long banquet of horrors. The usual miseries of war are not enough; a hundred new ones are invented to suit the invented inhabitants of another and a more highly civilized world. The men of "vast, cool, and unsympathetic intellects," who are all brain and hand, smiting with heat-rays, and choking out life with tubes of liquid black smoke, make mere powder and shell household pets by comparison. To read this story of the emptying of London and the wasting of Surrey by the loathsome Martians—for they are repulsive as well as fearful—is to quake by day and sink into nightmare after. Such tribute as this is certainly not to be denied it. The whole conception is highly ingenious, and the deliverance at last, although a fresh horror in itself, is unexpected cheer. That the accursed bacteria of disease and putrefaction should come to man's rescue and stay the Martians (who, having no bacteria in their otherwise happy home, have developed no resisting power against them as we have) is an untying worthy Mr. Wells's genius. Under his accustomed skill of treatment the whole is entirely convincing, but we acknowledge that we prefer terror in smaller prescriptions. We suspect, however, that Mr. Wells thinks it nothing, as Thoreau says, to go round the world to count the cats in Zanzibar, and that he is not likely to be restrained from ever bolder flights of his weird fancy, to ever stranger places, whither perforce his spell-bound readers must follow.

HOLM'S HISTORY OF GREECE.

The History of Greece from its Commencement to the Close of Independence of the Greek Nation. By Adolph Holm. Vols. II.-IV. Macmillan.

It will be interesting to observe the effect of the displacement of Curtius by Holm as the standard history of Greece for the general reader and literary worker. In a former notice of the translation of Holm's first volume, we commented on the sobriety and sanity of his judgment, and more especially on the pains he has taken in all doubtful matters to distinguish the threads of the original tradition from the fabrics of modern erudite conjecture. The impression is strengthened by a rapid perusal of the three remaining volumes of the translation which now lie before us. The book is not only the most compact and convenient repertory of the facts accessible to the general reader, but it is a salutary illustration of the simplicity and directness of a true method as opposed to the conventional declamation party spirit and caprice that mark many of the most picturesque and popular of our histories of Greece. Prof. Holm has simply eliminated rhetoric from his treatment of Greek history, and the resultant economy of space and clarification of our vision show us how large a place it had occupied. Where the evidence does not permit us to conclude, he is content to say so, instead of juggling with it in the endeavor to make possibility look like probability, and probability pass for certainty. He admits, with a touch of Socratic irony, that he cannot vie with the genius of a Curtius, a Droysen, or a Mommsen. But he confronts Curtius's highly colored picture of the degeneracy of democratic Athens with a tabular view in parallel columns of the eloquent historian's own phrases, from which it appears that precisely the same symptoms of sudden and irremediable moral decline manifested themselves about the years 430 and 360 B. C. Had a great moral revival occurred in the interim? he pertinently inquires. He deals similarly with Droysen's declamations about the frivolity of the Athens of Epicurus and Menander; and, while admiring the ingenious historian's "combinations," dryly observes: "The narration of the facts conjectured by him naturally occupies a great deal of space." Equally refreshing and incisive are his remarks on Mommsen's Cæsar-worship, and on the oversubtlety of classification which the learned historian of Rome applies to the legal status of the subject cities of the Empire. The study of Holm will prove a wholesome antidote to the mystic and pontifical manner of writing history.

In his defence of democracy, and his preference of the Athenian to the Dorian or Spartan type, Holm is a disciple of Grote. He even outbids Grote in admiration for Pericles, to whom he attributes far-reaching designs of "pulling out a few more stops in the average Athenian," as Matthew Arnold would say, by the introduction of Ionian science and Ionian culture and liberalism in the treatment of women. Like Grote, Holm protests against the use of Aristophanes as an historical authority, and, without committing himself to the exaggerations of Müller-Strübing, he knows how to make allowance for the inevitable prejudices of Thucydides. He joins in the rehabilitation of Cleon, whose success at Sphacteria he thinks (for once venturing on a conjecture) was due to a scheme prearranged with Demosthenes and the party that favored a vigorous prosecution of the war. He even has a good word for Hyperbolus, a "baser nature," perhaps, but unjustly thrust "between the pass and fell incensed points of mighty opposites." But his desire to rehabilitate the democracy and the popular leaders stops short of Grote's justification or palliation of the judicial murder of the generals of Arginousæ.

Holm's treatment of the fourth century is perhaps sufficiently indicated by his admiration for Xenophon, "a genuine Socratic, who eschews all phrase-making," and Isocrates, "the first and greatest publicist of antiquity." Accepting as he does Isocrates's programme of uniting Greece under some strong headship against Persia, he is comparatively unsympathetic towards Demosthenes, whom he oddly compares with "the agitator Gladstone," and takes a more favorable view than Grote of the character and achievements of Alexander.

The most valuable portion of the entire work is the fourth and final volume, in which the history of Greek civilization is

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brought down from the death of Alexander to the battle of Actium. The unity and interest of the theme lie, not in the shifting fortunes, the political intrigues, and the petty wars of the successors of the adventurers who carved themselves kingdoms out of Alexander's empire, but in the gradual diffusion of Hellenic culture over new continents and in the continued life and development of Greek city civilization. The name Alexandrian commonly applied to the entire period is a misnomer. The national life is far more truly represented by Athens, Rhodes, and the Greek cities of Asia Minor and the leagues than by the endowed science, the artificial poetry, the absolutism, and the immorality of the court of the Ptolemies. The alleged degeneracy of the Athenian people is sufficiently refuted by the high spirit they repeatedly displayed through these centuries in defence of their lives and liberties. The conventional declamations about the overthrow of Grecian liberty by the Macedonian or the Roman rest on an utter misconception of the facts. The course of history had demonstrated that freedom for the Greek meant simply the autonomy or local self-government of the *polis*. It did not and could not mean playing a great part on the stage of world-politics. The last hope of that vanished with the overthrow of the Athenian empire by the separatist cantonal jealousy that was at once the strength and the weakness of the Greek. "He was born to other politics." Even under the hegemony of Athens, Sparta, or Thebes, the citizen of an ordinary Greek town would have enjoyed at the most the liberty of communal autonomy, and this he did not forfeit under the rule of the successors of Alexander and the Romans. And the history of the fourth century proved that neither Athens, Sparta, nor Thebes could maintain order and play the part of international arbiter as justly as Rome and the kings did on the whole. The conclusion is, that we ought not, in the name of an illusory political liberty, to deplore the hegemony of Alexander, which extended Greek civilization to lands undreamed of by Isocrates, or the later rule of the Romans, which secured to the Greek cities of Asia Minor, under the *Pax Romana*, two or three hundred years of a prosperity hardly matched in the annals of mankind.

The life of the Greek *polis* during these centuries has more than a merely historical interest for us. Our vast centralized modern states, fenced from each other by protective tariffs and groaning under the burden of colossal armaments, do not necessarily constitute a higher political type than that presented by the system of Hellenized cities grouped about the Mediterranean under the presidency of the "central monad," Rome, which, as a rule, took from them little beyond the pernicious privilege of making war on one another.

Space fails us to follow in detail Holm's application of these considerations to the history of this interesting and little known period. He deserves the greatest praise for his masterly grasp and lucid presentation of the immense and complicated material. For the first time, unless we make a partial exception in favor of Mahaffy's interesting sketches, we have an intelligible and readable account of these important centuries. It is the indispensable preparation for any true appreciation of the work and mission of Rome.

A word, too, must be said in commendation of the notes that are appended to each chapter throughout the work. To the student they are more interesting than the text. They contain full references to the extant original sources, a critical examination of these sources, with a statement of all that is known or conjectured of their dependence on authors now lost; judicious criticism of the chief modern authorities, German and English, and a full treatment of all the latest epigraphic, monumental, and numismatic evidence—an enormous collection of useful material in systematic, compact form.

The translation is readable and substantially correct, though not free from occasional awkwardness and inaccuracy. "Forms of speech" and "forms of thought" (3, p. 222) should evidently be "figures of speech," etc. Miltiades was the victor rather than the conqueror of Marathon. Free inquiry was not limited to a "particular district" (2, 422), but to "ein spezielles Gebiet," namely, the phenomena of nature. "Defeated just like Dionysius had been" is poor English. Misprints and blunders in proper names and Greek words are much rarer than they were in the first volume, but are still far too frequent. We have noted, among others, Dexileus (3, 47), ἀπεψηφίσμενοι (2, 286), ἠτοίμοικεν (3, 256), Halonnessus (2, 265), τὸ λυσιτελῶν (3, 242), προβάλεσθαι (*ibid.*), ταπεινώσειεν (3, 259), μετακλησείς (3, 243), Democles for Demokedes (2, 430), Thrasydacus for Thrasydaeus (2, 86), Flaminius for Flamininus (4, 63), Gytheum for Gythium (4, 239 and 357), τό for τέ (4, 429), καταπληκτική φαντασία for καταληπτική (4, 158), etc., etc. The population of Seleucia (4, 450) should evidently be 600,000, not 6,000,000!

Reminiscences of the Old Navy. By Edgar Stanton Maclay. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

This small volume is the product of the material found in the journals and papers of Captain Edward Trenchard and of his son, the late Rear-Admiral Stephen D. Trenchard. These papers, though covering a period of time measured by eighty years, judged by results, present comparatively little of interest or historical value. There is, for instance, but the barest mention of the services of the elder Trenchard in the waters of Tripoli or during the war of 1812, in which he superintended the construction of one of the first of our vessels built upon the waters of Lake Ontario. At the time of the affair with Tripoli, Edward Trenchard was the intimate friend and contemporary of Stephen Decatur, while in the war of 1812 he commanded the sloop of war *Madison*. The only time in Edward Trenchard's career which is treated with any degree of fulness is his cruise in the *Cyane*, in 1820, against the slave trade on the west coast of Africa.

Admiral Trenchard, with a much longer and more recent career in the navy, has for his part worthy of mention only the attack upon the Pei-ho forts and his creditable share in the operations against Fort Fisher during our late civil war. In the affair of the Pei-ho forts, which occurred in 1859, the attack was made by Admiral James Hope, of the British navy, in command of an allied force, composed of British and French naval forces, the latter being quite small in number. Trenchard was present at the affair as flag-lieutenant of Commodore Tattnall, who then held the position of flag-officer of the forces of the United States upon the China station. With Mr. Ward, our Minister to Pekin, Tattnall and Trenchard were on board an English merchant steamer, chartered as a tender, the flagship *Powhatan* being of too heavy a draft to cross the bar and ascend the river to Tientsin. In the first attempt made by Tattnall to ascend and convey Mr. Ward towards Pekin, the tender—the *Toey-wan*—grounded opposite the forts of the Pei-ho, and was relieved from this predicament by the assistance of Admiral Hope, who had authorized Tattnall to hoist the American flag upon one of the English gunboats if he deemed it necessary—an exceptional act of courtesy. Before another attempt was made by the *Toey-wan*, the attack upon the barrier and forts was made by the force under Admiral Hope. The Chinese batteries, hitherto masked by hanging mats over their embrasures, opened a heavy fire upon the column of gunboats. Several were sunk, and a number of officers were killed or wounded, Admiral Hope being among the latter number. It was at this time that Tattnall made the exclamation, "Blood is thicker than water," and proceeded with his barge to the assistance of the English Admiral, receiving a shot in his boat which killed his coxswain and slightly wounded Trenchard, who accompanied him. The boat sank as it reached the gunboat carrying the English Admiral's flag, and, while waiting for another boat, the barge's crew manned the bow gun of this vessel most effectively. Other material assistance was rendered by the *Toey-wan* to the attacking force, which was repulsed, however, both ashore and afloat, and the English Admiral was forced to withdraw with a heavy loss of eighty-nine killed and three hundred and fifty-five wounded. This disaster was one of the most serious which have occurred to the British navy of late years.

During the greater part of our civil war the duty of Admiral Trenchard, as commanding officer of the *Rhode Island*, was principally one of supply and convoy. Towards the end of the war, however, an opportunity was given him of seeing more active service, when his ship was made one of the fleet under Admiral Porter engaged in the operations against Fort Fisher. His share in the attacks upon the fort was performed in a most creditable manner, especially in the second and successful attack. The *Rhode Island* did her work most effectually, for not only was an efficient landing party put on shore to join the naval assault upon the fort, but another party under Lieutenant (now Commander) Tanner performed great service in landing siege guns for the army through the surf, while the ship itself, with the present Chief of Naval Ordnance as second in command, kept up a heavy and uninterrupted fire upon the mound battery connected with Fort Fisher, during the entire engagement.

Admiral Trenchard had thus exceptional opportunity during his professional career of observing the difficulties attending a naval attack upon well defended land fortifications, and the necessity of combining with it a military force of sufficient size and mobility. In the two cases referred to, the command of the sea was with the attacking force; with this in doubt, the difficulties and uncertainties are necessarily greatly magnified.

Ambroise Paré and his Times. 1510-1590. By Stephen Paget. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

France, perhaps on account of her promi-

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nence in European warfare during the past 600 years, has been fortunate in developing a long line of good army surgeons. The list begins with Jehan Pitard, who went crusading with St. Louis, and reaches its culminating point in Jean Dominique Larrey, Napoleon's faithful servant and the surgeon of widest practical experience in the field that modern times has produced. Nearly midway between Pitard and Larrey we encounter Ambroise Paré, the superior of the first in opportunity and almost the equal of the second in character. Had he not written numerous works, some of them autobiographical, he would be remembered solely for his connection with the later Valois kings and for his practice of ligaturing the artery after amputation. His own writings make him a flesh-and-blood reality instead of a name, and Mr. Paget has placed us under obligations by editing for the English reader such treatises as the 'Account of the Plague' and 'Journeys in Divers Places.' We do not refer merely to his translation from the French of the sixteenth century, but to his presentation of Paré's typical *opera* in any form. The original copies are very rare and seldom to be met with outside of great national or corporate collections.

Mr. Paget's essay on Paré's life and actions belongs to history rather than to surgery. That science has so far advanced since the beginning of the French Revolutionary wars that the technique of the best men before Larrey belongs to the archæology of the subject. Paré, kind-hearted though he was, must be called proud. He was a stanch friend of the poor, and we do not mean that he was proud in the Filippo Argenti sense. Still, he set great store by himself, and was not a little vain of his achievements. He felt that he was the only surgeon of his age who had followed armies in the field for thirty years. Remembering this, we are the less surprised to find among his dedications this account of his place in the history of his craft:

"God is my witness, and men are not ignorant of it, that I have labored more than forty years to throw light on the art of surgery and bring it to perfection. And in this labor I have striven so hard to attain my end, that the ancients have not wherein to excel us, save the discovery of first principles, and posterity will not be able to surpass us (be it said without malice or offence) save by some additions such as are easily made to things already discovered."

To pen this sort of a challenge was evidently not considered by sixteenth-century prophets to be a flight in the face of Providence. Now that Paré has been superseded, it would be unkind to dwell upon his natural and harmless vaunting. We should only remember that he was the first to supplement theory by a vast experience; the first to set trained hand and eye above the cogitations of the easy chair; and among the foremost of those who showed that, even amid the debasement of a Valois palace, life could be well led.

From the contrast between his spirit and the circumstances of his time, one takes great pleasure in tracing out Paré's career. He was a devotee of science, and, despite Renaissance tendencies, the love of war still clashed with the pursuit of scientific aims. He believed in justice, and had to see the masses trodden under foot. An ardent patriot, he was forced to stand and wait while factions were ruining the happiness of his country. He professed Huguenot doctrines at the moment of the *noces vermeilles*, and was saved from destruction only by a friendship which led Charles IX. to place him in the same class with his own nurse. He was a lover of righteousness, and yet beheld the daily existence of princes from the inside. A good deal of what Brantôme describes must have passed under his eyes. L'Hôpital, Coligny, and Paré stand forth prominent among the saving remnant of a generation whose moral sense was blunted by the sins "that practice burns into the blood." He did not shrink from the shock of what he regarded to be honest war. On one occasion a volley levelled by his advice killed nearly a score of canaille. This story notwithstanding, his humane qualities mark him off from the mass of his contemporaries. He ministered to the enemy's wounded after the siege of Metz, and was used to shun all forms of professional cruelty which could be avoided.

Paré's 'Apologie et Traicte contenant les Voyages faicts en divers Lieulx' is admirably translated by Mr. Paget, and occupies, with its attendant notes, nearly one-half of the entire space. Written in polemical form against Gourmelen, Dean of the Faculty of Medicine at Paris, it proves how the author reached his unequalled skill. Gourmelen, "mon petit Maistre," attacked the ligature in defence of the cautery. Paré then, in 1580, at the height of his fame and by no means past his vigor, picked up the glove. His answer, judged by standards of sixteenth-century controversy, is polite, without lacking force. His purpose is simple enough. "You accuse me of malpractice. I will show you how I learned surgery and what I have done." Then, under separate heads, he describes nineteen campaigns or journeys on important professional business. After three years of hospital life in Paris, he had gone with the army to Italy, simply for the sake of getting good cases and material. His success was due to sheer merit. He went to the root of his trade before he reached the head of the royal surgical staff. Paré's style is delightfully vivacious, and from his wealth of adventures he draws forth those only which are to the point. Considered as memoirs, they are all too brief. They can at a sitting be read through aloud, and, once taken up in this way, they will hardly be laid aside till the end is reached. To select a single instance: French historical literature must be ransacked before it yields a more life-like picture than Guise's defence of Metz.

We can give unqualified praise to Mr. Paget's part in this book. It is not a work of erudition, but, besides being based on Paré's writings and the best modern authorities, it is well prepared, well arranged, well written. Doctors and historical readers will alike welcome his sketch which brings them into living contact with a surgical pioneer of high character; one, also, of the decentest men France produced in the century of the Reformation. The illustrations are very suitable, and the single censure we can make involves a small point of chronology: Charles IX. was a year or so older at his death than Mr. Paget states him to have been.

Religion and Conscience in Ancient Egypt. Lectures delivered at University College, London. By W. M. Flinders Petrie, D.C.L., LL.D., Ph.D. Scribners. 1898. Pp. 179.

Syria and Egypt. From the Tell el-Amarna Letters. By W. M. Flinders Petrie. Scribners. 1898. Pp. vii, 187.

These two volumes by Prof. Petrie are quite characteristic. The author is a man intent upon the representation of what is, rather than upon the development of fantastic theories of what may have been. To be sure, the most important part of the first book mentioned is in the exposition of what may be called the author's theory of the manifold and conglomerate nature of the Egyptian population; but if theory it be, it has a mass of fact behind it which is entirely lacking in the speculative explanations of the Egyptian religion with which we have been surfeited *ad nauseam*. In the capacity of discoverer, as it were, of this commingling of races in Egypt, Dr. Petrie may be excused for a fondness for a presentation of the subject, particularly as he dwelt upon the matter within very modest limits in his 'History.'

Any one who has studied the religion of Egypt at all has been struck by the discrepancies of conception which characterize it. This feature has been explained by the conservative character of the people; by their unwillingness to discard the old and by their willingness to adopt the new, notwithstanding the fact that there was an evident lack of harmony and consistency between the amalgamated elements. But Dr. Petrie has shown us a more excellent way. He finds four sources of immigration, each distinct and each having its peculiar religious notions and belief. From these he argues as many classes of theistic conception. These diverse ideas were supreme or mingled according to the political relations of the races which held them; one set dominating another or mingling with it, according as one race was supreme or only the ally or peer of the other. Such an hypothesis is certainly suggestive at least, and as it serves to explain many "discordances" of religious tenets, it has much in its favor.

The religious texts of Egypt are past number, but their contents are very meagre in their stores of actual information. The official religion is somewhat a matter of conjecture, but this is less true of the texts which Prof. Petrie here investigates. He has turned a keen mind to the examination of the tales which have come down to us embodying the folk-lore of Egypt. Here we come face to face with the popular religious belief, and here we find the most satisfactory results in the whole book. The whole discussion of the religion is stimulating, and it forms an important addition to our information.

When we turn to the discussion of conscience, we descend to a treatment of a distinctly lower order. Dr. Petrie's preliminary remarks on the nature of conscience are unsatisfactory, and the massing of material lacks life and spirit. The term conscience is also a misnomer; the subject treated is rather the standard of morality. There is no attempt to show whether there was any historical development or not, and the use of passages from Egyptian texts by way of illustration reminds one of the method of citing Biblical proof-texts in theology without any regard to their location in the order and progress of revelation. The Pentateuch, the Psalms, the Gospels, and the Epistles used to be regarded as equally good sources from which to draw. Similarly, Dr. Petrie makes no distinction between the documents from which he draws. It

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would be interesting to know whether the tone of morality and the standard of ethics advanced or retrograded, or simply changed the points of emphasis; but the reader is left in the dark on these important subjects so far as any effective details are concerned. If the entire documents used as sources of information had been reproduced in an appendix, they would have afforded some aid in this matter; but as this was not done, the present performance must be regarded as only partially satisfactory and, on the whole, as quite inadequate. The classified treatment of the duties of the moral code of Egypt is too mechanical and wooden to arouse much interest or to add greatly to our knowledge. The lack of an index further reduces the value of the work as a book of reference.

The volume on 'Syria and Egypt' contains a brief account of the finding of the cuneiform tablets of Tell el-Amarna, with summaries of their contents and a brief running commentary. The finding of these letters is one of the romantic things in modern discovery, and the marvel of the story which they have revealed surpasses the wonders of the necromancers. Prof. Petrie's performance is an attempt to arrange the letters in their historical order, but his commentary is restricted within too narrow limits. He has made a beginning, but scarcely more. There are many questions of contemporary history to be cleared up, and the claims and theories of earlier students are to be sifted with great care. With regard to the question of the date of the exodus of Israel from Egypt, the author's weight is thrown in favor of the usual view.

The general character of the two volumes is that of *obiter dicta*. The author is a busy man who has thrown off these books in the intervals of engrossing excavation and research in the field, and they bear the character which must attach to labors of this sort. They contain much valuable material, but they are not deeply learned, and they do not smell of the lamp.

Ceylon: Tagebuchblätter und Reise-Erinnerungen. Von Wilhelm Geiger. Wiesbaden, 1898. New York: Lemcke & Buechner. Royal 8vo, illustrated.

The present illustrated and descriptive volume on Ceylon is the work of a German professor, distinguished for his scholarship. It is a spirited and bright contribution, without a particle of the dry-as-dust element that tradition sometimes associates with Teutonic erudition. In other words, the book is not the diary of an ordinary traveller who is off on a jaunt to foreign lands, but is the production of a scholar who has a trained mind, a sympathetic heart, a wholesome love for nature, and who is qualified to judge of what he saw during his voyage to the Island of Ceylon in 1895-'96.

Dr. Geiger's name first became known in the field of Persian literary research. Of late years he has turned his attention to the sacred language of the Buddhists, and especially to the Singhalese. This latter fact accounts for his particular interest in southern India; and as an outcome of this he has given a good picture of the life that he saw in Colombo and in portions of the interior of Ceylon. The professor is evidently not a golf player (see p. 80), although the game has its devotees even in Ceylon. One may be interested in reading that Christianity, among the various sects of the island, claims one-sixth as many adherents as Buddhism (pp. 44, 72).

Of importance to the anthropologist, as well as to the philologist, are the author's investigations into the characteristics of the aboriginal tribe, the Weddas. This curious people, not pigmies but small of stature, are as deft in the use of the bow and the hatchet as they are shy in avoiding intrusion from outsiders into their jungle home. The photographs of these aborigines show rather an interesting, odd type. The book, moreover, is embellished by more than twenty original illustrations, which have not been published before; it is appropriately got up, and is written in a style of German that deserves commendation for its ease, grace, and charm.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Basket, J. N. "At You-All's House." A Missouri Nature Story. Macmillan. $1.50.

Bates, J. H. Christian Science and its Problems. Eaton & Mains. 50c.

Baxter, Katharine S. His Pretty Cousin. F. T. Neely.

Blass, Prof. Fr. Philology of the Gospels. Macmillan. $1.75.

Carlyle, Thomas. History of Friedrich II. of Prussia. Vol. VI. [Centenary Edition.] Scribners. $1.25.

Comfortable Thoughts for those Bereaved. Whittaker. 25c.

Day, T. F. Songs of Sea and Sail. New York: Rudder Publishing Co.

Fulton, Chandos. An Unusual Husband. F. T. Neely.

Goetschius, Percy. The Homophonic Form of Musical Composition. New York: G. Schirmer.

Grey, Henry. The Classics for the Million. New ed. London: John Long.

Hudilston, J. H. Greek Tragedy in the Light of Vase Paintings. Macmillan. $1.75.

Kennedy, Walker. Javan Ben Seir: A Story of Olden Israel. F. A. Stokes Co. 75c.

King, Capt. Charles. A Wounded Name. F. T. Neely. $1.25.

Leiser, Joseph. Before the Dawn: Poems. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co.

Lowrey, Oliver. A Runaway Couple. F. T. Neely.

MacEwan, E. J. The Essentials of Argumentation. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.12.

Marbourg, Dolores. The Soul of a Woman. F. T. Neely. 50c.

McKesson, C. L. Under Pike's Peak. F. T. Neely. 50c.

Neely's Panorama of Cuba. F. T. Neely. 10c.

Peary, R. E. Northward Over the "Great Ice." 2 vols. F. A. Stokes Co. $6.50.

Petrie, W. M. F. Syria and Egypt. From the Tell el-Amarna Letters. London: Methuen & Co.

Prentiss, H. M. The Great Polar Current. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.

Proal, Louis. Political Crime. Appletons. $1.50.

Ravenstein, E. G. A Journal of the First Voyage of Vasco da Gama, 1497-1499. London: Hakluyt Society.

Rice, J. M. The Rational Spelling-Book. Two Parts. American Book Co.

Romero, Matias. Coffee and India-Rubber Culture in Mexico. Preceded by Geographical and Statistical Notes on Mexico. Putnams. $3.

Rosher, Charles. Poems. London: Haas & Co.

Sienkiewicz, H. With Fire and Sword. Popular Edition. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.00.

Simonds, Prof. W. E. An Introduction to the Study of English Fiction. Briefer Edition. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.

St. Clair, George. Creation Records Discovered in Egypt. London: David Nutt.

Stetson, Charlotte P. In This Our World. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.25.

The Century Magazine. Nov., 1897—April, 1898. Century Co.

The Encyclopædia of Sport. Parts XIV. and XV. Putnams. Each $1.

Thoroddsen, Th. Geschichte der Isländischen Geographie. Zweiter Band. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.

Todd, Mary I. The Heterodox Marriage of a New Woman. New York: Robert Lewis Weed Co. $1.

Triggs, O. L. Selections from the Prose and Poetry of Walt Whitman. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. $1.25.

Van Oss, S. F. Fenn on the Funds; being a Handbook of Public Debts. 16th ed. London: Effingham Wilson.

War: Tales from McClure's. Doubleday & McClure Co. 25c.

Ward, Mrs. Humphry. Helbeck of Bannisdale. 2 vols. Macmillan.

Wentworth, G. A. An Advanced Arithmetic. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.

Willets, Gilson. Anita, the Cuban Spy. F. T. Neely.

Zeigler, W. G. It Was Marlowe. A Story of the Secret of Three Centuries. Chicago: Donohue, Henneberry & Co.

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